

THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE: THE IMPACT ON SERVICE DELIVERY

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Declaration

I, the undersigned, declare that the work contained in this thesis is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a degree.

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ABSTRACT

This research study explores the impact of organisational culture with specific reference to the South African Police Service (SAPS) culture on service delivery. The two interrelated concepts “organisational culture and service delivery are discussed broadly in terms of their challenges for the contemporary policing function which put emphasis on the provision of police service and accountability to the broader community. The premise of the study is based on literature research evidence that organisational culture is an important factor to influence employee behaviour towards organisational effectiveness and also determine how they respond to its external environment. At the same time a strong organisational culture can be rigid and become a hindrance to change.

Service delivery is a critical challenge to the government's ongoing efforts to ensure that its delivery process is efficient and responsive, particularly to the needs of the previously disadvantaged communities. In recent years, this challenge reinforced the government to embark on broad transformation mechanisms in order to position public institutions in an environment where service delivery meets the public needs and expectations. Some of these mechanisms include the promulgation of legislation, regulations and a series of policy frameworks notably, The White Paper on Reconstruction and Development (RDP), 1994, The White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service of 1995, Public Service Regulation of 1999 etc. However, the provision of efficient service delivery in public institutions is usually constrained by various factors such as lack of capacity and shortage of competency skills, financial and technological resources as opposed to the private sector which normally have these resources in abundance. Since lack of sufficient financial resources will always be a challenge for public service delivery enhancement, this study suggests that public institutions can incorporate some private sector strategies in order to be innovative and improve efficiency.

Apart from a lack of the above mentioned resources as contributing factor to inefficient service delivery, available theory on organisational culture state that it is an all encompassing factor that influences employee behaviour in public institutions. Chapter 3 provides a theoretical framework on the concept of organisational culture, its formation, and its sources, how it is sustained in the organisation. Various models and examples of organisational culture as found in small and big organisations such as those associated with government agencies are analysed and distinguish

in terms of why the size of the organisation can determine its prevailing culture. Small organisations with flat structures are considered to be flexible, autonomous, innovative and responsive to customer needs.

On the other hand the traditional bureaucratic organisations such as government agencies like police organisations tend to be characterised by highly formal hierarchical structure with too many layers, operational rules and regulations which are intended to enforce control measures. However, type of structures are criticised for rigid systems, autocratic, and slow. Models for changing organisational culture in order to increase its effectiveness are suggested.

After a theoretical discussion on both the concepts organisational culture and service delivery, the SAPS was used as a case study to establish the applicability and the extent to which organisational culture impact on service delivery. The first stage consist of analytical perspective of the SAPS historical military culture since its inception in 1913 and giving critical accounts of its operational phases that it had undergone until the new dispensation. Since the early 1990s until after April 1994 elections, marked a new era in the SAPS which embarked on broad transformation initiatives in order to change policing function from that of a narrow law and order maintenance to a fully integrated community policing which makes police officers to be accountable to the broader community by rendering police service and problem solving within a human rights culture. However, police culture has been widely criticised as a source of resistance to change and reform, and is often misunderstood.

The prevailing police culture which was inherited from the previous paramilitary legacy such as the autocratic leadership style, traditional bureaucratic structure, corruption, secrecy, mistrust are some of the dominant indicators which are identifiable and commonalities among the different police agencies. These dominant features cause any resistance to any change initiative and are perceived with negative image. After contextualising the description of the SAPS, the study describes the methods and procedures used to conduct an empirical research project in the form of a pilot study conducted in two police stations in Cape Town. Data collection methods include the following: 1) literature review, 2) open-ended one-on-one interviews with the station commissioners from the selected stations, 3) distributing survey questionnaires which consist of close ended questionnaires to junior officers at police stations to determine their attitudes towards the organisations they work in, and 4) by means of observation.

Theoretical evidence proves that police culture which is characterised by paramilitary, bureaucracy, rigid systems and procedures, inflexible structure still prevail in the SAPS and contributes significantly to lack of coordination, slow response and results inefficient service delivery. It is concluded that police stations are the primary centres where the public gets first hand experience when reporting their cases or need the help of police officers to solve problems in the community. In order to provide efficient police service, units which provide interrelated functions need to be fully integrated under one unit commander in order to improve coordination and prompt response. Policing crime is still the primary function of the police and police officers need to be fully equipped with competency skills and other capacity building programs that are consistent with the contemporary policing function.

OPSOMMING

Hierdie navorsingstudie stel ondersoek in na die impak van organisasiekultuur met spesifieke verwysing na die Suid-Afrikaanse Polisiediens (SAPD) se kultuur op dienslewering. Die twee verwante konsepte "organisasiekultuur" en "dienslewering" word breedvoerig bespreek teen die agtergrond van die agtergrond van die uitdagings wat dit stel vir die hedendaagse polisieringsfunksie wat dit beklemtoon dat die polisie 'n diens moet lewer en aanspreeklik moet wees teenoor die breër gemeenskap. Die studie se aanname is gebaseer op literatuurnavorsing wat toon dat organisasiekultuur 'n faktor is wat werknemersgedrag beïnvloed ten opsigte van organisasie-effektiwiteit asook hoe werknemers reageer teenoor die eksterne omgewing. 'n Sterk organisasiekultuur word beskou as 'n bindende faktor tussen werkers en die organisasie en dit skep kosekwenheid en rigting. 'n Sterk organisasiekultuur kan terselfdetyd rigied wees en 'n struikelblok word in die weg van voorgestelde verandering aangesien verandering beskou kan word as inmenging in die normale gang van die organisasie. Hierteenoor het 'n meer buigsame kultuur die voordeel van aanpasbaarheid ten opsigte van verandering.

Dienslewering is 'n volgehoue uitdaging vir die regering se se volgehoue pogings om te verseker dat sy leweringsproses effektief is en die behoeftes van spesifiek die voorheen benadeelde groepe aanspreek. Hierdie uitdaging het die regering genoop om transformasie-meganismes daar te stel ten einde openbare instellings in staat te stel om leweringsagente te word wat die behoeftes en uitkomst-verwagtinge van almal aanspreek. Van die meganismes sluit in die promulgering van wetgewing en beleid soos die Heropbou-en Ontwikkelingsprogram (HOP) Witskrif, 1994, die Transformasie van Openbare Dienste Witskrif, 1995, die Openbare Diens Reguleringswet van 1999 ensomeer. Die lewering van effektiewe dienste word gewoonlik beperk deur verskeie faktore soos 'n gebrek aan kapasiteit en vaardighede, asook finansiële en tegnologiese hulpbronne wat normaalweg tot die beskikking van die private sektor is. Gegewe dat 'n tekort aan finansiële hulpbronne altyd 'n uitdaging vir effektiewe openbare sektor dienslewering sal wees, stel hierdie studie voor dat openbare instellings sekere privaatsektor strategieë kan inkorporeer ten einde innovasie en effektiwiteit te verbeter.

Behalwe bogenoemde beperkende faktore, stel beskikbare organisasiekultuur-teorie dit dat dit ook organisasiekultuur is wat openbare sektor amptenare se gedrag is wat die kwaliteit en vlak van dienslewering beïnvloed. Hoofstuk drie bied 'n teoretiese raamwerk vir die konsep

organisasiekultuur ten opsigte van hoe dit geskep en in stand gehou word binne organisasies. Verskeie modelle en voorbeelde van organisasiekultuur binne klein sowel as groot organisasies word ontleed en daar word gekyk na hoe die grootte van 'n organisasie organisasiekultuur beïnvloed. Klein organisasies met 'n plat struktuur word beskou as buigsaam, outonoom, innoverend en daartoe in staat om die gebruiker se behoeftes aan te spreek.

Daarteenoor word tradisionele burokratiese organisasies soos polisie-organisasies gekenmerk deur formele strukture met te veel vlakke, operasionele reëls en regulasies ten einde volle beheer te he oor prosedures. Die rigiede stelsels, outokrasie, en stadige leweringproses van sulke strukture word dikwels gekritiseer. Modelle om organisasiekultuur te verander ten einde effektiwiteit te verbeter word voorgestel.

Die teoretiese bespreking van die konsepte organisasiekultuur en dienslewering word gevolg deur 'n gevallestudie van die SAPD ten einde te bepaal die mate waartoe organisasiekultuur impakteer op dienslewering. Die eerste fase behels 'n analitiese perspektief van die SAPD se historiese militêre kultuur sedert 1913 asook 'n kritiese blik op operasionele fases waardeur die SAPD gegaan het tot en met die nuwe dispensasie. Die vroeë 1990s tot net na die April 1994 verkiesing verteenwoordig 'n nuwe era in die SAPD ten opsigte van transformasie inisiatiewe wat daarop gerig was om die polisieringsfunksie te verander van 'n agent wat eng gefokus was op die handhawing van wet en orde na 'n geïntegreerde polisdienst wat aanspreeklik is teenoor die breë gemeenskap. Dit behels die lewering van 'n polisdienst sowel as probleem-oplossing binne die konteks van 'n menseregte-kultuur. Polisie-kultuur word, as gevolg van misverstande, dikwels beskou as 'n bron weerstand teen verandering.

Die heersende organisasiekultuur – wat 'n nalatenskap is van die vorige paramilitêre styl byvoorbeeld outokratiese leierskapstyl, tradisionele burokratiese strukture, korrupsie, geheimhouding, wantroue – is van die dominante indikatore wat gemeenskaplike eienskappe is van die verskeie polisie-agentskappe. Hierdie dominante kenmerke veroorsaak weerstand teen enige veranderingsinisiatief en word as negatief beskou. Die beskrywing van die SAPD word gevolg deur 'n uiteensetting van metodes en prosedures wat gebruik was tydens die empiriese navorsing wat gedoen was by twee polisiestasies in Kaapstad. Data insamelmodes sluit in: 1) literatuurnavorsing, 2) ope en-een-onderhoude met die stasiekomissaris van die twee stasies, 3) die verspreiding van geslote vraelyste aan junior offisiere by polisiestasies ten einde hul houding te bepaal teenoor die organisasies waar hulle werk, en 4) observasies.

Teoretiese bewyse toon dat die polisiekuiluur wat normaalweg gekenmerk word deur paramilitere, buroktariese, rigiede stelsels en prosedures steeds bestaan binne die SAPD en dat dit bydra tot swak koördinasie, swak response en oneffektiewe dienslewering. Ten slotte word gemeld dat polisiedienssentra plekke is waar die publiek eerstehands kennis maak met dienslewering . Ten einde `n effektiewe diens te lewer, behoort eenhede wat verwante diense lewer geintegreer te word onder die bevel van een bevelvoerder. Misdaadvoorkoming is steeds die primere funksie van die SAPD en beamptes moet toegerus word met die nodige bevoegdhede, vaardighede asook kapasiteitsbouprogramme wat in lyn is met die kontemporere poliseringsfunksie.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

BAC- Business Against Crime

CPF- Community Police Forum

EU- European Union

HIV- Human Immunodeficiency Virus

ICT- Information Centre technology

MEC- Member of Executive Committee

NCPS- National Crime Prevention Strategy

NQF- National Qualifications Framework

PFMA- Public Finance Management Act, 1999 (Act 1 of 1999)

OD- Organisational Development

QMS- Quality Management System

RDP- Reconstruction and Development Programme

SABC- South African Broadcasting Corporation

SAPS- South African Police Services

SAQA- South African Qualifications Authority

SDIP- Service Delivery Improvement programme

WPTPS- White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service

CHAPTER 1:

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

This study project was conducted from the premise that police culture, which is characterised by bureaucracy and results in inefficient service delivery. Since police organisations exist within the environment of public institutions, service delivery is revisited and discussed in Chapter 2 within the policy framework outlined in the White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (Batho Pele Framework) of 1997 and identified service delivery principles in order to increase greater efficiency. Essentially, the need for efficient service delivery is further reinforced by the government's envisaged culture of quality service where Chapters 3 and 10 of the Constitution (Act 108 of 1996) outline how public service is to be transformed in order to provide efficient service to the public.

Enhancing service delivery and creating sustainable service delivery are terms which are frequently used in South Africa, and which became popular from the mid 1990s, but in examining the literature, it was noted that this term is more easily used than fully explained. Given this lack of clarity, it can be argued that service delivery also relates to the way in which the public experiences the services and goods they receive from the government. In recent years there has been a global shift from pure public administration and more emphasis on incorporation of public management and its application in public administration in order to foster innovation. As a result of this shift by many governments towards the application of new public management strategies and South Africa inclusive trying to respond to the global challenges, some of these strategies are suggested in terms of how they can improve efficiency in the public institutions.

Since the organisational culture is an all encompassing factor that influences employee behaviour towards the organisational effectiveness and its external environment, it is important to understand its sources and how it is sustained in the organisation. Chapter 3 will therefore examine the overview of organisational culture in detail in terms of how its typologies; different models and the visible cultural dimensions which differentiate organisations from one another. Strategies and factors, which can be used to improve organisational culture, are suggested in order to increase organisational effectiveness. Furthermore literature review shows that many organisational leaders are aware of the organisational culture, but they tend to neglect its effects on employee behavioural attitude and beliefs which influence their productivity.

Concerning police culture, this study has identified the unique features of police culture that are found to be common among police agencies in different countries. These relate to paramilitary culture, police bureaucracy, hierarchical systems, mistrust and suspicion, secrecy, authoritarian style and corruption, which are among the common indicators of, police culture. Such features are also common in the South African Police Service (SAPS). Based on their analysis of police culture, Bryett & Harrison (1993: *ibid*) and Stead (1980: *ibid*) identified the unique characteristics of police cultures, and agree that these features are common in different police organisations.

Most police forces continue today as semi-military, strictly hierarchical organisations with deeply sexist views about women. These commonalities are represented by dominant features, which determine the way of doing things in the organisation and are a barrier to change (Shaw, 2001: *ibid*). Such features will be analysed in this study in terms of their prevalence in the SAPS. A pilot study was chosen to conduct research investigation at the two stations in the greater Cape Town area by means of distributing questionnaires to police officers, holding informal interviews with station commissioners and general observations in order to determine their behavioural attitude within the organisation.

1.2. Introduction

As noted in the background, this study will examine the impact of police culture on service delivery. The discussion begins by outlining service delivery within the context of the transformation process that was undertaken since the new dispensation in South African public institutions. Service delivery framework which aims to build the capacity in public institutions will be discussed broadly and other private sector best practices that can be incorporated and bring innovation are also suggested. As Fox & Meyer (1996:118) suggest, the provision of service delivery is one of the most important functions of public institutions. In the context of public institutions, services can be regarded as relating to both the provision of tangible public goods and to intangible services themselves. When defining a service, Zeithaml & Bitner (1996:5) state that it is an intangible product that provides benefits to consumers (satisfy needs and wants) and often involves human or mechanical effort. Various literature studies conducted on the transformation of service delivery will be examined.

Organisational culture is one of the most critical factors that influence employee behaviour in the organisation. According to the previous literature findings on the organisational culture, it is evident that the behavioural value in public institutions is one that is characterised by bureaucratic systems, inward looking and results in poor customer approach and in efficiency services. This study will explore how organisational culture is established and sustained in the organisation. Exploring the concept of organisational culture in this study was further motivated by the recent studies conducted by authors

such as Deal & Kennedy, (1982:232), Ouchi, (1981:244), Schein (1992:418) and Peter & Waterman, (1982:360), which show that organisational culture has a significant impact on an organisation's long-term performance, that it will probably be an even more important factor in determining the success or failure of organisations; that culture that inhibits long term performance are not rare and that they develop easily; that organisational culture, although difficult to change, can be made more performance enhancing. Notwithstanding a different research focus, terminology and methodology, the conclusions appeared to be similar, i.e. that all firms have corporate culture, some have stronger cultures than others and that these cultures can exert a powerful effect on individuals and on organisational performance (Kotter & Heskett, 1992:9).

In the literature (see for example, Robbins (1999), Deal & Kennedy (1982) and Schein (1992:xv)) show that organisational culture manifests itself at the level of behaviour and espoused values, but that the essence of culture lies in the set of underlying assumptions that a group shares and that differs from other organisations. This description signifies that organisational culture is the basis on which the organisation becomes unique and distinct from other organisations through its established value systems and beliefs. In this regard it can be stated that organisational culture serves as bonding effect on all members of the organisation, which becomes accepted and learned by new members.

The study then follows by providing a historical background about the establishment of the SAPS. Since the SAPS was established in the early 1900's it has gone through different phases ranging from a paramilitary force, securocrat up until after 1994, whereafter it became a police service. Notwithstanding, the major restructuring and rationalisation undertaken in the SAPS during the 1990's which brought among the following changes namely, replacing the paramilitary rank system and titles with new civilian based models, moving away from the use of force and endeavoured to entrench a new policing style that is community oriented and respecting human rights, many researchers and studies about police agency argue that the past paramilitary legacy still prevails.

A number of unique cultural characteristics, of which some are observable whilst others reflect the underlying values that influence police members' behavioural attitude at organisational and individual level, these will be analysed and compared with how the research findings conducted in Chapter 5 about the SAPS culture are common and whether they have a significant influence in service delivery. As already noted the research conducted in this study is firstly the literature on service delivery in public institutions and organisational culture, mainly focusing on the police culture. Research study is conducted in police stations in order to establish the effect of culture on service delivery.

1.3. Rational of the Study

The general aim of the study is to determine the impact of organisational culture, with specific reference to the SAPS, on service delivery. More specifically, the objectives formulated for this research project are to:

- Discuss the broad challenges facing the public institutions in service delivery;
- Understand the broad concept and dynamics of organisational culture;
- Compare and contrast different cultural models, dimensions and typologies;
- Identify the sources from which an organisation derives its culture and how it can be managed; and
- Understand the inherent organisational culture and its influence on effectiveness of the SAPS.

1.4. The Research Problem

The focus of this study is to determine the extent to which the organisational culture in SAPS has an effect on service delivery at station level. Research shows that service delivery in public institutions, with specific reference to the SAPS, is poor and often characterised by inefficiency and further worsened by lack of customer-oriented culture. In order to illustrate issues raised above, the research focus in this study will examine literature about the organisational culture that prevails in police organisations. Research is further conducted in the SAPS in terms of how members perceive its organisational culture on service delivery.

1.5. Plan of Study

This study discusses how the two concepts namely organisational culture and service delivery are interrelated. Actual experimentation to test the hypothesis will not be possible due to the methodology used in this research project. The study project is organised into six chapters, each containing a specific part of the analysis. Chapter 1 (this chapter) consists of an introduction to the study, describing the background to the study and the problem statement, the main concepts addressed in the study, the field of study, research techniques used in the study and the contents of the thesis.

The scope of chapter 2 discusses the theoretical framework of the principles of service delivery and other strategies aimed at enhancing and optimising service provision in the public institutions.

Chapter 3 begins with the exploration of the concept of organisational culture as it influences organisational performance. The concept of cultural web is used as a means of describing

organisational culture. The different models, typologies, characteristics and effects of organisational culture are analysed with practical examples in order to compare their implications in real life organisations. In Chapter 4 the historical background and paramilitary legacy of the South Africa Police Service, reform and transformation process to change the culture from police force to police service are outlined. The chapter ends with identifying the common characteristics of police culture. In Chapter 5 the data collection and findings on the research conducted about the police culture and service delivery are discussed. Finally, in Chapter 6 the thesis concludes with the recommendations, which include a description of the proposed models of improving the organisational culture and service delivery.

1.6. Research Methodology and Design

1.6.1. Introduction

According to Mouton and Marais (1990:33) "the aim of a research design is to plan and structure a given research project in such a manner that the eventual validity of the research findings is maximised". Irrespective of how structured or unstructured the research project is likely to be, it is the duty of the researcher to ascertain which general nuisance variables may render the results invalid and to take every possible step to ensure that these factors are either minimised or eliminated.

This study requires a multidimensional research approach. Due to the essentially exploratory nature of the research project, the methodology used in the study involves qualitative methods of collecting data. Primary data was obtained by means of conducting research interviews and distributing questionnaires to the selected group. Similarly, secondary data included obtaining the relevant information using the following sources: review of the related literature, internet search, examining official documentation and newspaper reading.

1.6.2. Methods of Data Collection

In order to obtain the research data and draw conclusion, information needs to be gathered and verified for comparison and integration into the theoretical framework. The following methods were used to gather information and research results:

1.6.2.1. Review of Related Literature

Literature study regarding the police culture was conducted from the research evidence that services provided by the police to the community are usually inefficient. Police culture is often characterised by bureaucratic systems and autocracy commonly found in police organisations. Such a culture can be traced back from the early establishment of these agencies. However, police organisations, in particular

SAPS, exist within the context of public institutions. In terms of the government's envisaged culture of public service delivery, strategic documents and White Papers outlined how departments and employees should provide public services to the public.

The concept of public service delivery is broad and required the examination of among the following sources: policy documents, strategic frameworks, White Papers, legislation, regulations and relevant theory to obtain the views of other researchers. Furthermore, police culture cannot be analysed without first discussing the theory on the formation and sources of organisational culture. Organisational culture aspects such as cultural dimensions, cultural types and the effects of culture are discussed. As Mouton (2000:87) suggests that literature review helps the researcher to learn from other scholars as to how they have theorised and conceptualised on issues, what they have found empirically, what instrumentation they have used and to what effects. The theoretical framework concludes by contextualising both the concepts of organisational culture and service delivery within the SAPS for further comparison with research investigation in Chapter 5.

1.6.2.2 Internet

Internet web search engines were used as they are popular tools for locating information. The common search engines that were used in this study include Google, Yahoo, and Anazi to mention a few.

1.6.2.3. Questionnaire

O'Sullivan & Rassel (1989:143) state that in deciding what to include in a questionnaire, researchers need to identify the variables they want to measure, the type of questions that will measure the variables, and the number of questions needed to assure reliability and operational validity. In this regard a questionnaire was designed to determine the group individuals' perceptions about the culture of the organisation and how they perceive police service delivery from their own perspective.

The questionnaire consisted mainly of *closed-ended* questions which ask the respondents (mainly the junior police officers) to choose from a list of responses. For example, respondents were expected to check whether they "strongly agree", "agree", "disagree" or "strongly disagree" with the statement. A covering letter for the final questionnaire was drafted with the help of the study leader to indicate to the participants the aim, importance and benefits of the research. With the results obtained from research investigation, the researcher will be able to determine whether the organisational culture in the SAPS has significant influence on the performance of police officers to provide service delivery.

1.6.2.4. Research Interviews

Having gained insights from the literature frameworks, it becomes important that the study be complemented by means of research interviews and observations. The research interviews will focus on determining the views of the targeted group's perceptions on the culture of the organisation they work for and their perceptions on service delivery to the community. Specifically, the interview questions will be unstructured and *open-ended* in order to allow the Station Commissioners to formulate their own opinions and responses pertaining to the prevailing organisational culture at the station levels.

1.6.2.5. Observation

The prime purpose of observation is to obtain information that would not be possible when using other methods such as interviews and research reports. Before carrying out interviews it was felt necessary to obtain more information about police services at station level (which are also referred as Community Services Centre) and those who work in them, namely, the roles performed by various units; and whether they vary between stations; what organisational structures exist and how structure affects communication. It was evident that internal documents and other publications could not reveal all the nuances of the organisational life and hence the researcher felt that a period of observation would reveal at least some of the unreported detail. In addition, observation would also provide the researcher with a valuable opportunity to learn more about the practices and context of police work.

1.6.3 Selection of participants

In order to reach consistency and objectivity in the research, the parts of the population that will be targeted by the survey questionnaire needed to be determined. For the purpose of this study, a convenience sampling involving a pilot study was conducted. It involves choosing respondents to whom the researcher has access. This was done because of financial constraints. A group of police officers who were available at the station were asked to complete the questionnaires. This method was considered to be inexpensive and convenient.

1.6.4. Data analysis

Findings from the literature study are listed and documented (see Chapter 5). Data from the questionnaires was coded. Findings from the data analysis are presented fully in Chapter 5.

1.7. Definition of Terms

Public Service Delivery - in the context of governance, public service delivery is the result of the intentions and decisions of government and government institutions, and the actions undertaken and decisions made by people employed in the government institutions.

Police Culture - known as “cop culture” refers to the norms, values, and craft rules which shape the working rules of the police organisation (Niland, 1996: *ibid*).

Community Policing - community policing can be defined as a philosophy or approach to policing which recognises the interdependence and shared responsibility of the police and the community in making South Africa a safer, more peaceful and more liveable country. Community policing aims to establish an active and equal partnership between the police and the public through which crime and community safety issues can be jointly determined and solutions designed and implemented (Ministry, 1997: *ibid*).

Organisational Culture - there are many definitions of organisational culture as is evident from Chapter three. For the purpose of this study, organisational culture is defined as the underlying values, beliefs and principles that serve as the foundation of an organisation's system and the set of management practices and policies that ultimately shape employee behaviour (Schein, 1992:17).

Paramilitary - paramilitary structure as having a chief -- the leader -- at the top of the organisational pyramid, leading and directing down where all the followers eagerly await to obey orders (Ayres, 1994:*ibid*).

Transformation - the transformation of the SAPS is described as the overall process of change, and includes rationalisation and amalgamation. It further includes the transformation of policing styles, approaches, priorities, policies, cultures and attitudes whereby the SAPS becomes a community service-orientated police service aligned with values and principles such as transparency, accountability, impartiality and professionalism (Lue, 1995:3).

1.8. Conclusion

This chapter includes the introduction, rationale and background of the study and introduces the outline and chapters to be discussed in this study. Key concepts and terminologies are described. The methodology that will be followed to conduct the research study is outlined in section 1.6. The main focus of the research is to determine the impact of police culture on service delivery. Due to time constraints and financial consideration, a research investigation will be conducted by means of a pilot study at two police stations around Cape Town. In Chapter 4 the two concepts of service delivery and

organisational culture will be analysed within context of police organisation with specific reference to the SAPS, in order to integrate with the research findings in Chapter 5. In the next chapter a more detailed discussion of the concept of service delivery will be presented.

CHAPTER 2:

SERVICE DELIVERY

2.1. Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to explore mechanisms that can be utilised to improve public service delivery. Service delivery in the context of public institutions is informed by the policy framework, which is contained in White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (Batho Pele) of 1997 and identified service delivery priorities. In addition public service delivery is seen as a comprehensive area of action and a crucial responsibility of public institutions. Because of its comprehensiveness, the principles of service delivery in conjunction with other strategies to enhance services are examined.

As is the case with other concepts, the field of service delivery contains an abundance of literature and different opinions. Although it can be argued that all public officials are involved in service delivery and are aware of the principles of service delivery, casual observation by the researcher during the literature review indicates that the actual implementation is not well articulated to achieve the best results. The chapter concludes by identifying some of the strategies that can be used to optimise the delivery of public service.

2.2. Defining Service Delivery

One of the challenges facing the government is to ensure that public institutions do not just merely exist as representative of the broader citizens but they become centres that provide quality service delivery. In this sense the public will judge the government's success in terms of its effectiveness in delivering services that meet the basic needs of all citizens.

A service is an intangible product that provides benefits to consumers (satisfy needs and wants) and often involves human or mechanical effort. It can be deeds, processes and performances (Zeithaml & Bitner, 1996:5). In this regard services relate both to the provision of tangible public goods and to intangible services themselves. According to Fox & Meyer (1996:118) public service delivery is the provision of public activities or satisfactions. The nature and extent of the service vary according to the level of development of a country. However, irrespective of the public service provided, government tries to promote efficiency and effectiveness. To improve service delivery all the aspects involved in the process of delivering the service should be made more efficient (Fox & Meyer, 1996:118).

Examining these definitions service delivery can be summarised as a systematic or mechanism to provide public goods or services to satisfy the various needs of the citizens by undertaking a purposeful activities and allocate resources in order the services to be efficient and effective.

2.3. Characteristics of Services

Services are held to have certain unique characteristics, which distinguish them from goods. According to Rothschild (1984:58) and Titman (1995:12-13) the differences are that services are:

- Intangible;
- People-dependent;
- Inseparable from consumption;
- Normally understandised or heterogeneous;
- Perishable; and
- Subject to fluctuating demand.

Some of the distinct differences between goods and services, and the implications these differences hold, are illustrated in Figure 1 below.

Goods	Services	Resulting implications.
Tangible	Intangible	Service cannot be inventoried. Service cannot be patented. Service cannot be repeatedly displayed or communicated. Pricing is difficult.
Standardised	Heterogeneous	Service delivery and customer satisfaction depend on employee actions. Service quality depends on many uncontrollable factors. There is no sure knowledge that the service delivered matches what was planned and promoted.
Production separate from consumption	Simultaneous production and consumption	Customers participate in and affect the transaction. Customers affect each other. Employees affect the outcome. Decentralisation may be essential. Mass production is difficult.
Nonperishable	Perishable	It is difficult to synchronise supply and demand with services. Services cannot be returned or resold.

Table 1: Differences between goods and services (Zeithaml & Bitner, 1996:19).

The difference between goods and services provide reasons for treating services separately. Table 1 provides clarity about the importance of what seems to be a common misinterpretation between the two. In addition, Minie (2000:75) holds the view that services are a diverse group of products.

2.4. Policies and Legislative Frameworks Underpinning Service Delivery

The need to provide sustainable service delivery requires that the government formulate policies and a regulatory framework in order to guide how public goods and service are delivered to the public. In this regard the vision of the government's commitment to the provision of access to service delivery to the

citizens is embedded in framework of existing legislation, regulations, policies, procedures which prescribe how services should be delivered in the public sector. These will be discussed below:

2.4.1 South African Constitution (Act 108 of 1996)

The South African Constitution (Act 108 of 1996) is the highest legislation in the country; any public service delivery legislation, policy or strategy must be in compliance with the Constitution. Furthermore, it is the guiding document on how the public service is to be transformed in order to provide efficient service delivery to the public. Chapters 3 and 10 of the Constitution address improved government service delivery where it is stipulated that the public administration should adhere to a number of principles including that:

- a high standard of professional ethics be promoted and maintained;
- services should be provided impartially, fairly, equitably and without bias;
- resources should be utilized efficiently, economically and effectively;
- people's needs should be responded to;
- public should be encouraged to participate in policy-making; and
- public administration should be accountable, transparent and development- oriented.

The Constitution, through the Bill of Rights (Chapter 2), also gives citizens certain rights to take action against the state if they believe their constitutional rights have been infringed, and to have access to information held by the state which they need in order to be able to do so. Various policy documents have been produced and legislation passed to put mechanisms in place to support this vision such as Promotion of Access to Information (Act 2 of 2000) and Promotion of Administrative Justice (Act 3 of 2000) respectively.

2.4.2. The White Paper on Reconstruction and Development (RDP), 1994

The RDP (South Africa, Parliament, 1994), Chapter 11 stipulates that service delivery will focus on meeting the basic needs of the 40% or more of South African citizens living below the poverty line in urban and rural areas, as well as other groups (including people with disabilities) who have been previously disadvantaged in terms of service delivery. At the same time, however, an effort will be made to ensure continuity of services at all levels of society.

2.4.3. The White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service of 1995

The White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (WPTPS), was promulgated in 1995. According to paragraph 2.1, the government outlined a broad policy framework for transforming the South African public service in line with the vision set out in the following paragraph:

The WPTPS states that the Government is committed to continually improving the lives of the people of South Africa through a transformed public service which is representative, coherent, transparent, efficient, effective, accountable and responsive to the needs of all. In pursuit of this vision, the Government developed the following mission statement: "The creation of a people centred and people driven public service which is characterised by equity, quality, timeousness and a strong code of ethics".

2.4.4. The White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (Batho Pele) 1997

The promulgation of the White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery of 1997, known as Batho Pele, should be seen in the light of the government's intention on changing the culture in the public institutions to follow the more customer-service approach as practised in the private sector. Its purpose is to provide a policy framework and practical implementation strategy for the transformation of public service delivery. It also contains a flexible framework for the delivery of public services, which puts citizens/customers first and enables them to hold public servants to account for the service they provide. Retrospectively, it is clear that the White Paper on Service Delivery (Batho Pele), 1997, was adopted to take further and implement the vision of transformation as espoused in the White Paper on Transforming the Public Service and which contains a number of principles which will be discussed later.

2.4.5. White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service, 1997

The above white paper proposes changing the public service to reflect a service delivery-oriented, multi-skilled and multicultural workforce. According to Kuye, Thornhill and Fourie (2002: 178) the White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service, 1997 advocates the following management principles:

- Decentralisation, including both devolution and delegation;
- Efficiency, aiming to minimise waste and maximising value;
- Effectiveness, making human resource management outcomes-based;
- Flexibility, taking into account the operational needs of the organisation and the needs of the employees;
- Diversity, accommodating different views; and
- Service standards, which will set the level of service provided to customers.

The above principles imply that the organisational structures should be more closely aligned to the strategic service goals of the public service. Thus, a process of multi-skilling and continuous development should be implemented.

2.4.6. Promotion of Access to Information (Act 2 of 2000)

This Act gives an ordinary citizen the right to access to relevant information held by the state and emphasises the obligations of the state in the protection of personal data held by it. The Act gives effect to the constitutional rights of access to information, to foster and promote a culture of transparency, accountability, effective governance, human rights and social justice.

2.5. Overview of Service Delivery (Batho Pele Framework)

The government through the White Paper on Transformation of Public Service Delivery of 1997, whose main objective is to improve efficiency and productivity in the public sector, adopted a private sector customer-focused approach. Such initiative aims to reinforce a culture in the public sector that is responsive to customer needs. The White Paper on the Transformation of Public Service Delivery of 1997 provides for the principles discussed hereunder.

2.5.1. Consulting users of services

Consulting the citizens provides the public institutions with the objective evidence which will determine service delivery priorities and enables them to influence decisions about public service. Consultation can also help to foster a more participative and co-operative relationship between the providers and users of public service (White Paper on the Transformation of Public Service Delivery of 1997:16). It must take place between public servants and citizens about the level and quality of the services that the public will receive. It also implies that citizens must have a say regarding the services delivered to them. According to Cameron & Stone (1995:95), provincial governments should encourage the establishment of sub-regional and/or local forums that consist of representatives of all stakeholders in the area. In consultation with these forums, local authorities will then promote the development of their own areas.

Myers & Lacey (1996:336) state that the public sector should provide a choice wherever practical. In addition the Batho Pele White Paper (1997:16) states that there should be regular consultation with those who use the services. The consultation process should be undertaken sensitively, for example, people should not be asked to reveal unnecessary personal information, and they should be able to air their views anonymously. Furthermore, often more than one method of consultation will be needed to ensure comprehensiveness and representativeness.

Finally, it can be deduced that consultation provide advantages such as helping the public institutions in the planning process to align priorities with the urgent needs of the users, legitimising the planning process and lastly mobilising the users of services to feeling part of ownership and thus inculcate a culture of responsibility. Consulting users may contribute to a more effective service delivery process. It

may also help government to avoid the risk of non-acceptance of troublesome programmes after implementation. It is thus clear that citizens can be a vital tool to mobilise support for and co-operation in certain policy programmes.

2.5.2. Setting Service Standards

Public institutions should set service standards with a regular reporting system and should be constantly monitored. Spangenberg (1994:73) refers to the service standards as performance measures and also argues that performance measures are needed to determine how well service providers should perform and to enable them to establish whether they have succeeded. Service standards must be relevant and meaningful to the individual user, so they must contain accurate information. This means that they must cover those aspects of the service that matter the most to users, as revealed by the consultation process.

According to the White Paper on the Transformation of Public Service Delivery (1997:5), standards must be precise and measurable, so that users can judge for themselves whether or not they are receiving that which have been promised. In addition to this, Chapter 8 of Local Government: Municipal Systems (Act 32 of 2000) stipulates that the consumption of services has to be measured and public institutions have to take reasonable steps to ensure that the use of services by individuals should be measured through accurate and verifiable systems. However, measurement problems in the public sector contribute to differences between the users and service providers, for example consumers often complain that municipal offices issue inaccurate information and wrong account billing.

It must be stated that if service standards are to be relevant, appropriate key performance indicators, including outcome and impact indicators in regard to priorities, objectives and key performance areas of each department should be in place. The departments should also implement measurable performance targets for each of the priorities and objectives. Having a proper system in place will ensure early warning indicators of under-performance. An audit of performance measurement must become part of each department's internal auditing process. Lastly, if service standards are used properly, they can serve as a benchmark against which the department can measure whether it is succeeding in achieving its goals.

2.5.3. Increasing Access

One of the greatest challenges facing the South African government is currently to address the backlog of basic services such as water, housing and land redistribution, to mention a few that have been inaccessible to the disadvantaged communities. Accessibility means that all citizens should have equal

access to the services to which they are entitled. This means that deliberate efforts must be made to help especially those who are disadvantaged such as the illiterate, the poor and disabled, to receive access to the public services.

According to the White Paper on Transformation of the Service Delivery (1997:18), national and provincial government departments are required to specify and set targets for progressively increasing access to their services for those who were previously excluded from them. This implies that a pensioner from Philippi Township, who applies for a government pension, must do so without having to travel several kilometers to Cape Town. It also entails that the physical environment such as office building premises, structures as well as public officials who process forms should be user-friendly be able to explain in the content and procedure in plain language that will be understandable and to provide all the correct information. Aspects such as time and speed are critically important in optimising service delivery.

2.5.4. Ensuring Courtesy

Courtesy and regard for the public are fundamental duties of public servants and the White Paper further specify that "public servants should treat members of the public as customers who are entitled to receive the highest standards of service" (Batho Pele White Paper 1997:17). To ensure high standards of service delivery, the Public Service Commission formulated a Code of Conduct that should be complied with by all public sector departments. According to the Code of Conduct, national and provincial departments must specify the standards for the way in which customers should be treated. These are to be included in their departmental Codes of Conduct. These standards should cover, among other things:

- greeting and addressing customers;
- the identification of staff by name when dealing with customers, whether in person, on the telephone or in writing;
- the style and tone of written communications;
- simplification and 'customer-friendliness' of forms
- the maximum length of time within which responses to enquiries should be made;
- the conduct of interviews;
- how complaints should be dealt with;
- dealing with people who have special needs, such as the elderly or infirm;
- gender; and
- language (White Paper on the Transformation of Public Service Delivery of 1997:19).

This principle implies that public servants must treat every citizen with courtesy and consideration, irrespective of the social status of the person.

2.5.5. Providing more useful information

In terms of Section 32 (1) of Constitution (Act 108 of 1996) "everyone has the right to access to any information held by the state; and any information that is held by another person and that is required for the exercise or protection of any rights". Clearly this indicates that public institutions should provide timely and accurate information. According to Fox et al (1991:261) in the public sector an information system serves a variety of supporting functions in tasks such as policy-making, planning, organising and the control of various internal and external functions, such as human resources, financing, engineering, health, security and public works.

In practice, this means that a water and electricity statement should contain relevant information about the service consumed such as the correct estimates of income the nature and if possible also the quantity of service consumed, during the specified time period. However, Chaston (1993:174) points out that a frequently articulated complaint of managers in the public sector is that their data-processing staff lacks the ability to provide the accurate information promptly.

Written information should be clear and in a language style that is not ambiguous, so that it is easy to read and understand; it must also contain the name and contact number for obtaining more clarification and advice. Qubein (1997:77) describes the four "f's" that modern organisation need as being focused, flexible, fast and friendly. It is suggested that these four issues can be utilised in the public institutions to adapt their systems and provide information promptly to the public. For the purpose of this study the four principles have been adapted in terms of their value to the public institutions. Accordingly they are explained therein that the organisation cannot:

- focus the efforts of the entire workforce if it is criss-crossed with walls that impede the flow of communication;
- be flexible if it has a rigid corporate structure in which every division and department is a closed information loop with no lines of communication to other parts of the organisation;
- respond to market if barriers to information flow-in from the outside exist, causing slow seeping of information through layer after layer of management; and
- be friendly if the people do not talk to other people inside and outside the organisation (Adapted from Qubein 1997:77).

Apparently, public institutions have to move away from the culture of secrecy and lack of transparency and must respond positively and timeously to the request of information regarding the use of public services. Failure to do so, unless the information is considered as “under classified information”, public may result in suing the state in terms of section 33(1) of the Constitution (Act 108 of 1996).

2.5.6. Increasing openness and transparency

Transparency and openness are dealt with in the Batho Pele White Paper. It is mentioned that the public should know more about the way national and provincial government departments are run, how well they perform, the resources they consume, and who is in charge (White Paper on Transformation of Public Service Delivery, 1997:20). Openness helps the public to gain knowledge as to how decisions are made, the principles that guide this process of decision-making and the degree of information that is available to the public to enable them to participate fully in the decision-making process (Hunt 1995:12). In addition Sekoto (1999:111) states that openness and transparency promote a customer-focused approach by placing citizens in a position where they can contribute to the improvement of service delivery by getting the correct information to enable them to assess the government's performance.

Transparency helps to remove any doubts and suspicions from the public about the internal activities in the public institutions. Notwithstanding this, there is still a tendency in public institutions that they hide their internal processes and most often that they are inward looking. Transparency is important for specific public programmes, such as the divestiture of state-owned enterprises, which will quickly lose public confidence if the privatisation is not seen as an open process. The principles of accountability and transparency in service delivery are seen as vital to ensuring value for money, responsiveness and efficiency in service provision. Hollis & Plokker (1998:103-4) add that these principles require the establishment of a rational and open system of public finance in which:

- all expenditure and income on social service provision are consolidated in national and local accounts to remove the potential distortions created by ‘on-budget’ and ‘off-budget’ accounting;
- as far as possible, a standard and objective classification of expenditure and income is used;
- hidden or cross subsidisation of social services, enterprises and other bodies is discouraged;
- statutory reports include data on service provision against budgetary or national benchmarks;
- and
- all accounts are independently audited to ensure their objectivity.

In terms of openness and transparency, public servants are obliged to inform citizens about the administration and management of national and provincial departments, what it costs to run them, and who is responsible for running them.

2.5.7. Redress

In the Batho Pele White Paper (1997:21) it is stated that staff should be encouraged to welcome complaints as an opportunity to improve service, and to report complaints so that weaknesses can be identified and remedied. The head of each department should regularly and personally review complaints, and examine how they have been dealt with. The nature of complaints should identify areas where further training is needed. When mistakes have been made and corrected, this must be seen as a learning opportunity for individual employees to improve and not to repeat the same mistakes. Employees should also be encouraged to report immediately when they have made mistakes so that it can be remedied promptly and not to feel afraid of reprimand. Clearly, the demand for training and competency by all personnel requires an unwavering commitment from top leadership and link with the strategic goals and objectives of the department. To compete, in time, frontline people must be empowered, be given autonomy and high spending authority, be trusted and encouraged to break the rules, etc (Peters 1992:6). By putting a suggestion box where the users will indicate their level of satisfaction or comments, alternatively design a system where the departmental managers can be approached directly.

2.5.8. Providing the best possible value for money

It is important that the value for money for the services which the users pay should mean the provision of affordable, good quality services in a timely and sustainable manner to service users. Similarly, the government's intention to improve service delivery and extend access to public services to all South Africans must be achieved alongside the government's Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) strategy for reducing public expenditure and creating a cost-effective public service (Batho Pele White Paper 1997:22). According to this assertion it means that if a pensioner applies for an identity document (ID) book at Home Affairs offices, the departmental officers must ensure that the ID is processed and issued promptly. It should be ensured that the correct forms are completed and the ID book be issued timely to avoid possible additional costs such as transport for making follow-up visits and possible legal costs which may arise when the affected pensioner feels he/she is losing an income as a result of delay in issuing the ID.

The Cape Times, 4 September 2002, for example published a story about a pensioner from Durban who applied for her ID book on 16 March 1999 and was informed to collect it in three months time. During

her sixteen successive visits to the office, she was informed that it had not yet been processed. According to the newspaper the ID book was only issued on 7 November 2000 after she had sought legal assistance from the Legal Aid Board, and it appeared the application had been lost in the process. As she did not have an ID book, she could not apply for pension grant and with the legal assistance from the Legal Aid Board, the Department of Home Affairs had to pay about R11 000 for infringing her constitutional rights to receive income.

The above example highlights the need for greater process efficiency, competency and responsibility from public officials when processing matters of concern. Global competition has necessitated that many organisations make use of the latest high technological devices in order to provide speedy delivery of services and to improve productivity and efficiency. In light of the changes brought about by the global technology, which make it easy to access information, the consumers are no longer passive in demanding faster and efficient delivery of services from the government. Furthermore, the principle that citizens have the right to demand the services they receive that are real value for the money paid for them compel the responsible public servants to provide efficient, effective and economic services.

2.5.9. Enhancing accountability

Accountability in the present dispensation can be seen as a departure from the previous rule-bound public service, in that it is now governed by ethics, honesty, openness and transparency, responsiveness (courtesy), flexibility, competency, due process, "legitimate legality" and representativeness (Theron et al 2000:32). According to Fox & Meyer (1995:11-12) accountability is viewed as the cornerstone of democracy and it can be defined in several ways. Firstly, it is the responsibility of a government and its agents to achieve previously set objectives and to account for them in public; secondly, it is the commitment required from public officials, individually and collectively, to accept public responsibility for their actions or inactions; and finally, it is the obligation of a subordinate to keep his or her superior informed of the execution of responsibility.

Accountability can be done through regular performance review, which should be based on key performance areas. The system should link key performance areas and indicators to the goals of the public institution and should be implemented by all staff from management echelons to the entry level. In addition Hollis & Plokker (1998:104) proposed some modern management techniques which can be used to strengthen lines of accountability and enhance transparency. They include the following:

- the introduction of service specifications to define what customers can expect from providers as a means of strengthening accountability between consumers and providers of services;

- the development of financing mechanisms which incentives managers to perform well such as output funding;
- the strengthening of monitoring mechanisms, particularly for the private sector, with the use of objective performance criteria;
- the use of strategic service planning to ensure that resources are aligned with strategic priorities; and
- the use of more consultation techniques to canvass the views of consumers of services and promote stakeholder participation in service provision.

The establishment of various oversight bodies by the legislature such as the Auditor General, the Public Protector, the Human Rights Commission, and the Public Service Commission was an effort to make public accountability possible (Sekoto, 1999:117).

2.5.10. Encouraging innovation and rewarding excellence

Innovation should be encouraged in the public institutions through fostering a customer-focused approach as is done in private sector organisations. By implication innovation means that public officials should find new ways when interacting with customers that are friendly and sympathetic and responsive to the individuals' needs. Innovation is generally understood to relate to the ability to use technology, i.e. new products and new methods for making them. In this study, innovation relates to the new ideas of how one reorganises, cut costs, puts in new budgeting systems, improves communication or assembles goods or products. Essentially, it is critical that the environment should be conducive to and allow employees to think and develop and act according to new ideas rather than following strict management plans. It must also encourage risk-taking, allow for a wide range of stimuli and ideas, and recognise success which will inculcate an innovative culture.

As Sekoto et al (1999:118) suggest, it is imperative for the success of a customer focused-approach that the commitment, energy and skills of public servants are harnessed to tackle inefficient, outdated and bureaucratic practices, to simplify complex procedures, and to identify new better ways of delivering services. With regard to reward, it becomes necessary that the efforts of staff, both individually and as a group, who perform well in providing customer service, should be recognised and appropriately rewarded.

2.5.11. Partnership with the wider community

A closer look at development-related policy documents, it is evident that the South African government is increasingly recognising the importance of partnership with other stakeholders in the delivery of

services. To this end the government has encouraged partnership approaches to address the country's development challenges. This process requires that the public and private sectors, as well as labour and communities, work together to achieve sustainable socio-economic development. Partnership should neither be introduced for the sake of the practice, nor should it be seen as an end in itself. It should rather be entered into with the explicit goal of saving money and enhancing efficiency. This point is emphasised because partnership is not in itself problem-free and should rather be adapted to support a more strategic approach, for example when focusing on effective policy management in public institutions.

Using partnership properly will enable public institutions to focus on their core functions and skills and utilise a range of partnership arrangements to ensure effective service delivery. Furthermore, any successful partnership must be based on a number of fundamental principles, if it is to combine increased efficiencies with more effective, developmental public institutions. Theron et al (2000:161) outline some of these principles which include:

- cost effectiveness and service efficiency;
- transparency;
- participation;
- continued public institution responsibility;
- a proper contractual relationship and monitoring process; and
- a good working relationship between the departmental management and the service delivery agent.

A partnership can reduce existing service delivery costs or can extend services to new communities. Partnerships can ensure that all consumers are given an efficient and cost effective service. Contracting out some services is a key mechanism where the public institution lacks capacity to deliver. By encouraging competition among service providers, incentive for efficient operation and the potential for profit encourage entrepreneurship and innovation in the public institutions. Using private finance, management and resources for the public good will thus be optimally beneficial within an effective contractual and regulatory environment.

2.6. Other Public Management Strategies for Enhancing Innovative Service Delivery

The current global challenges put pressure on both private and public institutions to be innovative, resulting in a trend on governments to move away from the old traditional public administration functions and to incorporate the new public management. In this section public management is seen as existing and cutting across within public administration. Therefore public management is conceived as a means

to improve managerial innovation, performance, efficiency and emphasises the centrality of citizens as well as accountability. In this section some management functions, skills and applications which can be useful and which can help public managers to use resources optimally are described. These applications are based on the knowledge and principles of public management and administration, which public managers can apply to a particular area. Similarly, these applications can be considered as the most relevant ingredients of public management when efforts of improving service delivery are discussed. As systematic instruments, they can assist the public manager in the execution of functions and skills (Fox, Schwella & Wissink, 1991:203-239). These components of public management applications are now examined below.

2.6.1. Policy Analysis

Policy has been described as government programmes of action in achieving goals to address societal problems. Policy implementation is the delivery of strategy-level services, and can result in the physical supply of a product, be it a good or a service, to the public (Fox & Meyer, 1996:96-98). By evaluating and attempting to optimise policy, policy analysis has been one attempt to optimise public service delivery.

Information is a primary requisite for the many decisions to be made in framing policy (Burger, 1996:188). The collection of all the relevant data is however almost never possible. A criticism against policy analysis is its propensity to focus on current policies and how these can be adapted to circumstances, instead of following a bottom-up approach: first determining the real (not perceived) need and then formulating a policy. Public managers are in an ideal position to analyse the effects of policy and make recommendations. They also link between the legislature and the community, who are the recipients of public service. In this regard they should communicate sufficient information on the various alternatives or options to policy makers (Van der Waldt & Du Toit, 1999:281).

2.6.2. Strategic Management

Strategic management is a public management application that was borrowed from the private sector (Schwella et al, 1991:221). David (1986:4) provides the following definition 'strategic management is defined as the formulation, implementation and evaluation of actions that will enable an organisation to achieve its objectives. Strategic management includes identifying an organisation's internal strengths and weaknesses, determining a firm's external opportunities and threats, establishing a company mission, setting objectives, developing alternative strategies, analysing these alternatives, and deciding which ones to execute'. Strategic management should be seen as important to conceptualise the environment. This is also based on the view of Schwella et al (1991:234) on environment where it is

mentioned that when formulating strategy, an environmental analysis has to be conducted with the most valid and reliable conceptualisation of the environment for the public organisation in mind. With the environment properly analysed, good choices can be made and implement effective methods to achieve service delivery and customer satisfaction.

2.6.3. Organisational Development

According to Van der Walddt & Du Toit, (1999:287) the purpose of organisation development is to increase the effectiveness of an institution through planned intervention in the organisational process by applying behavioural science knowledge. Harvey & Brown (1996:4) define organisation development (OD) as an effort planned, organisation-wide, and managed from the top to increase organisation effectiveness and health through planned interventions in the organisation's processes with behavioural knowledge. When OD is applied appropriately it can improve the organisation's effectiveness and also enhance the development of organisation members. It is clear that through the OD intervention the different structures or functional units can be integrated and facilitate co-operation. With sharing of information easily accessible, the different spheres of government can also use resources optimally.

2.6.4. Improving Decision-Making

Optimal service delivery will be ensured by informed and sound decision-making capacity by the public managers who are responsible for service delivery. Public managers especially those in top positions in the departments, frequently confront new problems for which sometimes there are no established procedures for solutions. This requires people who have creative imaginations to provide alternative solutions. An approach to address bad decision-making could involve configuring decision-making processes which help link policy and action. Another option is to ensure that service delivery is improved through accountability, citizen-responsiveness and where organisational performance are promoted and understood by both the political and the managerial dimensions of government (Pampilon, 1998:<http://www.org.za/discussion.htm>).

2.6.5. Human Resource Management

The purpose of this section is not to discuss the formal aspects and steps for the training of personnel in the public sector. Rather it is to highlight the importance of how human resource management can enable the public managers to co-ordinate and control the human resources division effectively in conjunction with other functional divisions such as finance. Secondly, it is assumed that employees with the right skills and highly motivated are more likely to be productive and achieve effectiveness. It is also important that there is synergy and cooperation between the human resource division and other functional divisions such as finance division. For instance, if synergy and cooperation lacks problems

may arise such as salary increases, promotion and employees lack motivation (Van der Waldt & Du Toit, 1999:300). The authors add that human resource management is needed to provide, use, remunerate, train, develop and maintain trained, motivated personnel for the public sector.

2.6.6. Financial Management

The achievement of service delivery objectives also relates to the need for public managers to ensure that financial resources are optimally used to address the competing needs of the public. Van der Waldt & Du Toit (1999:300) hold the view that the available resources must be managed carefully to ensure that funds are used effectively and that the objectives of a department are achieved. Public managers must have sound financial knowledge to control budgets, make cost-benefit analysis and estimates in planning, control inventory and the optimal use of sources of financing. Lastly, to perform their tasks properly, financial managers should have an in-depth knowledge of the prevailing and expected macro-economic conditions of the country and the prevailing and expected trends in the government's fiscal and monetary policy.

2.6.7. Project Management

Kroon (1995:486) defines a project as a set of interrelated activities with a definite start and ending. In addition project management is characterised by the application or implementation of actions and implies an application and/or adjustment of management techniques to exercise more effective control over existing resources. Van der Waldt et al (1999:312) view project management as a planning and control mechanism for using resources to achieve specific objectives, and which has the following advantages:

- Control is exercised over the whole project, which leads to higher productivity;
- Shorter completion period;
- Cost control;
- Quality of the product; and
- Transparency because the whole community is involved.

It can be seen from the above that through project management, the activities for specific projects that are aimed for service delivery can be properly coordinated and managed effectively for goal achievement and better outcomes.

2.6.8. Entrepreneurial Management

According to Schwella et al (1996:331), in terms of the public sector, entrepreneurship involves being continuously interested in effectiveness, efficiency and responsiveness, and in cutting time and costs.

Although entrepreneurial government can be limited by stifling rules and regulations in the public sector, it can be useful in improving service delivery. In addition entrepreneurship encourages its own replication and, through proper exposure to it, can be learned and spread throughout society (Schwella et al, 1996:334). By embracing entrepreneurial skills, productivity and high performance can be achieved in the public institutions.

2.6.9. Public-Private Partnerships

The government and the private sector or non-governmental organisation (NGOs) work jointly, with clearly defined roles, on a public purpose. However, management control is still retained by government, and the option of ending a contract and resuming direct government control is retained. The benefit of this initiative facilitates organisational differentiation. According to Cohen & Eimicke (2002:137) a public-private partnership enables public managers to focus on policy design and programme evaluation and allows others to worry about the direct administration of governmental programmes.

2.6.10. Information Technology

Information technology has been used extensively in businesses and administratively. With the rapid development of information technology, particularly in distributed processing and network computing, the concept of the use of information technology in the public sector has changed dramatically. Information technology often enables completely transforming a business process (Schwella et al, 1996:205). Kroukamp (1999:303-4) states that the strategic potential of information technology can be found in a number of aspects, such as speed or quality of service delivery.

Firstly, services can be delivered more rapidly. The fact that it is possible to process and retrieve more information in less time increases the quality and efficiency of service delivery. The speed of service delivery also increases when the civil servant who handles a specific case has real-time access to databases, which are located in other units. Secondly, information technology can be used to increase public access to service agencies or department. The increased access to service agencies could stimulate the openness of government. Improved access to government information may also enhance the bureaucratic competencies and skills of citizens.

Thirdly, new technologies are able to facilitate remote communication and transactions. A digital political discussion on the internet between elected representatives and citizens is one example, but future development may lead to new kinds of virtual communication via virtual reality applications. Fourthly, the use of information technology for public service may also be directed towards enhancing the

transparency of citizens. Data-coupling and data-mining techniques enable policymakers to acquire a better insight into their clients' needs. Service delivery therefore becomes the clients' needs and preferences instead of the bureaucratic organisation. In more recent years the introduction of technological aids such as fax machines, computer-aided packages like the internet, intranet, e-mails, cellular phones and multi-media centres makes communication easier. For instance Information Centre Technology (ICT), e-government and other technological machines are grounded on the need to develop an integrated approach to enhance service delivery. Lastly, the use of electronic devices such as payment of electricity bills and licences in retail stores and other outlets have become convenient rather than standing in a long queue at the post office. Information technology can make the police work easy by providing quicker information about the suspect as to whether he or she committed previous crimes before deciding on bail.

2.6.11. Records Management

Records management will always be important to the public institutions. The filing plan, internal procedure rules and the law set ground rules. According to Kuye et al (2002:66) the objectives of record management include, control over business processes, and documentation of the legality of business processes. It suggested that an electronic records management system use state-of-the-art technologies that can leverage the potential for rationalisation in various ways. For example, it can be used to:

- make business processes more effective and transparent;
- link records to cross-agency information systems; and
- integrate into record management services for citizens and organisations offered via the Internet.

It can be seen from the above that if used effectively, record management is a solution to public institutions. Apart from including paper files and electronic records, records management also provide a workflow management system that maps both predefined and ad hoc processes and flows. In addition, it integrates all application areas ranging from simple administrative processes to specialised professional procedures. Another advantage is that in electronic records management, files do not have to be physically moved when people work on them. It is only the task that moves. In this way several employees can access the record at the same time and make it quicker for task action. Electronic records management improves communications with other government institutions, business, community organisations and citizens because modern records management, based on a powerful information technology solution, does not stop at the institutional boundaries of the government

institution. It is clear that public institutions can cut costs and still improve the services they provide to citizens.

2.6.12. Service Management

Gronroos (1997:345-6) describes the service management perspective as a total organisational approach that makes quality of service, as perceived by the customer, the number one driving force for the operations of the business. It includes some shifts in the focus of management such as:

- From the product-based utility to total utility in the consumer relationship;
- From short-term transactions to long-term relationships;
- From core products (goods or services) quality or the mere technical quality of the outcome to total customer-perceived quality in enduring customer relationships; and
- From production of the technical quality of products.

Service providers may be internal or external to the customer organisation - in general, the same principles apply, except that for internal provision the contractual arrangements will not have legal force. Services must evolve in order to be appropriate and effective in supporting the changing business and to continue to achieve value for money. The e-government strategy encourages innovators in government to identify new ways of working in partnership with the private sector, and possibly other public sector organisations. Service management is the means of ensuring that the customers continue to get what they want and/or to which they are entitled to (Gronroos (1997:345-6).

2.7.13. Developing Service Delivery Indicators

In terms of Section 27(4) of the Public Finance Management (Act 1 of 1999) (PFMA), departments are required to report on measurable service delivery objectives and develop an indicator of service delivery for each output that is defined. Service delivery indicators are important measures:

- What goods and services budgeted monies 'buy';
- What progress government makes in terms of its policy priorities and objectives; and
- Whether government is getting value for its money.

It can be seen that service delivery indicators provide important accountability checks on government. They further shift the focus of departments and managers from inputs and resources used, to the quality and impact of services that they deliver. According to Version 2 of National Treasury Manual (2001:19) output or quantity measures describe outputs in terms of how much, or how many. But increased output does not always signal value for money. Other measures such as quality, outcomes, timeliness and sustainability are also important. In addition, the manual further suggests that indicators should be:

- Simple, clearly expressed and specific-the indicators should be able to communicate a message that is readily understood by policy-makers, decision-makers and the public; and
- Reliable-indicators should have high predictor and proxy power. The indicator selected should be strongly related to the output that is intended to be measured.

Lastly, the implementation of management indicators helps to measure an organisation's ability to meet specific operational objectives. An operational objective is a concrete, measurable goal that is directly related to an organisation's principal activities or operations. Operational objectives should be areas that are prioritised for improved performance rather than for reaching specific numerical targets.

2.7. Conclusion

Regulatory guidelines and the principles according to which service delivery can be improved have been summarised in this chapter. The White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery of 1997 introduced a vision and new philosophy for quality service delivery. This philosophy is summarised as follows: government institutions' obligation to deliver services efficiently, effectively and economically, the public's legitimate right to receive efficient, effective and economic services, and the public's legitimate right to demand quality services if standards drop. Other public management applications that aid the capacity of public institutions to improve service delivery were also discussed. To conclude this chapter, it should be noted that service delivery is inherently linked to the need for public servants to inculcate a culture of entrepreneurship in order to optimise resources. A discussion about culture and characteristics that influence the behaviour of members in the organisation are outlined in detail in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3: ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE OVERVIEW

3.1. Introduction

Before an attempt is made to determine the relationship between organisational culture and other variables such as service delivery, it is important to gain an understanding on how culture is formed and sustained in an organisation, and transmitted and managed within such organisation. In this chapter, the various dimensions and typologies of organisational culture are identified and analysed in order to understand how these are operationalised in the real life organisation. It has been mentioned in the literature that cultural dimensions play a significant role in organisational effectiveness.

Organisations are lifeless entities that require people to give them life and make things happen. Managers play a critical role in the organisations by creating rules, regulations and conditions for uniformity. In turn, these influence employees as they develop certain perceptions of the organisation. Furthermore employees also develop a shared meaning as they attempt to make sense of their work place. These interactions form the basis of organisational climate and culture. Significantly, culture in the organisation has a great impact on its employees because it defines the quality of their life at work. It is therefore important that the culture of an organisation is understood.

3.2. Definition of the Concept of Organisational Culture

Defining the concept organisational culture is a difficult task that many authors avoid by simply not defining the concept and assuming that the reader will understand the concept (Silvester & Anderson 1991:1). According to Fey & Claes (1999:9) and Williams, Dobson and Walters (1990:9), most people agree that organisational culture exists, but few agree on what it is. Within the context of anthropology, organisational psychology and management theory various definitions have been given to the concept 'organisational culture'.

Robbins (1990:325) refers to culture "as a system of shared meaning. In every organisation there are patterns of beliefs, symbols, rituals, myths and practices that have evolved over time. In the long run, culture creates common understandings among members as to what the organisation is and how its members should behave. Culture dictates what we pay attention to, how we act and what we value". Meanwhile Fox et al, (1995:30) define culture as the sum total of learned behaviour traits characteristic of the members of a society, community or group; the values, norms, artefacts, and accepted behaviour patterns of a society, community or group; the environment within which public agencies and officials operate. Harvey & Brown (1996:162) maintain that organisational culture includes the language, dress, and patterns of behaviour, value system, feelings, attitudes, interaction, and group norms of the

members. In addition, Koble, Rubin and Osland (1995:354) define organisational culture as “a pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered, or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, - that has worked well enough to be considered valid, and therefore to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems”.

Schein (1992:iv) believes that culture will “manifest itself at the level of behaviour and espoused values, but the essence of culture lies in the set of underlying assumptions that a group shares”. That is why he also refers to the organisational culture as the deeper level of basic assumptions and beliefs that are shared by members of an organisation that operate unconsciously and define in a basic ‘taken for granted’ fashion an organisation’s view of its environment. Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelley (1991:46) concur with Schein by describing it as the “personality or feel” of the organisation, explaining how organisations and people within the organisation behave in different circumstances.

When examining Schein’s definition of culture it appears to be excluding behaviour. Rollins & Roberts (1998:4) suggest this is due to the many forces besides culture (shared assumptions) that influence behaviour in organisations. In respect of this, the definition identifies that culture has to do with groups of people collectively (not individuals alone), who through their experiences together, in their daily work environment, will build a picture of what the organisation is all about and how it undertakes its purpose, and that this picture is built through learning how to behave for survival and progression. However, Kotter & Heskett (1992:4) observed that organisational culture is one that includes behaviour as part of culture. They view culture as having two levels, values and behaviour:

- Values are “notions about what is important in life [and these] can vary greatly in different organisations; in some settings people care deeply about money, in others about technological innovation or employee well-being”. Once values are established in an organisation, they tend to remain relatively stable, even as individuals come and go. Values are typically difficult to change and in some cases, values are so taken for granted that people are not consciously aware of them.
- Behaviour is what people in the organisation actually do, creating the “patterns or style of an organisation that new employees are automatically encouraged to follow by their fellow employees”.

A view held by Fullop & Linstead (1999:92) is that culture is the term used to refer to a system of shared meaning held by members of an organisation that distinguishes that organisation from another. Though the shared meaning may not always be easily articulated, it represents a common perception held by a

number of authors. Similarly, Brown (1995:26) views culture as being a product of 'historical process'. Basically, his book describes and categorises all types of organisational cultures for the purpose of analysing and gaining a deeper understanding of the influences of organisational cultures. Brown further suggests that in every organisation there are systems or patterns of values, symbols, rituals, myths, and practices that have evolved over time. These shared values determine, to a large extent, how employees perceive and respond to their environment. Even though individuals may have different backgrounds or work at different levels in the organisation, they tend to describe the organisation's culture in similar terms. He also talks about the fluidity of organisational culture when he says: "Organisational cultures are rarely completely static over long periods of time". Rather, they are subject to continuous processes of development and change due to organisational learning, which occurs as employees seek answers to problems concerning external adaptation and internal integration. In general the different elements of a culture are likely to be differentially resistant to change, with basic assumptions being the least likely to alter radically and artefacts being the most prone to evolutionary processes (Brown 1995:33).

According to More & Wegner (1992:241) culture consists of all the knowledge, values, attitude, norms, behavioural patterns, language, and artefacts that are passed from one generation to the next and form a way of life for those within the group. Some work groups develop a distinctive, at times unique, social orientation. Bryett & Harrison (1993:34) state that culture is also cumulative in that each generation enriches the one that follows. This cumulative process prompts the acceptance by individuals of the norms and values of the society and the application of informal and formal control on those who do not conform.

Reynecke et al (2001:12) defines culture as "the deposit of knowledge, experiences, beliefs, values, attitude, meanings, hierarchies, religion, notions of time, roles, spatial relations, concepts of the universe, and material objects and possessions acquired by a group of people in the course of generations through individual and group striving". It appears this definition touches on all aspects that are influenced by culture and therefore indicates that culture is a way of life, which is shared by a certain group. Johnson (1992:31) states that organisational culture consists of various stories, myths, rituals, symbols, routines and control systems.

Most of the above authors support or highlight the behavioural view of organisational culture as it is attributed to the "beliefs and values", which assumes that this occurs by way of learning through direct and indirect means. For instance this may happen when employees see how management treats other

people and their interpretation of how management treats them. This view has two components namely, the norms, which are internalised views of how one should behave, and the patterns, which are external visible manifestations of the internal views. Concerning the above definitions, it is clear that culture provides members with a sense of identity, generates commitment to something larger than self-interest, and helps people make sense of what occurs in the organisation and the environment. When assessing a particular organisation, it can be easy to confuse management style with culture and Reynecke et al (2001:74) caution that that culture is more than a management style; it is the way in which an organisation responds to opportunities and problems that confront it. Consequently, the success of an organisation rests with its employees, their attitudes and thoughts regarding the organisation, their co-workers, their jobs, and many other similar factors that have a direct and profound impact on organisation performance, competitiveness, and success.

For Fulop & Linstead (1999:92), culture is not something an organisation *has*, but something an organisation *is*. In other words, an organisation is not only a place where cultural processes happen, but it is also an outcome of those processes working in society. The organisation itself is both a product and a producer of culture. Furthermore, cultural processes do not operate in a unified way, they are fragmentary, incomplete, contradictory, disrupted and neither stop nor start when we want them to (Fulop & Linstead 1999:92).

In retrospect, values reflect the organisation's perception of the community it serves as well as the approach that must be followed in the day-to-day execution of duties. In the light of this, organisational values are therefore expressed through the actions of the organisation in the distinction between what is deemed important and what aspects are rejected as irrelevant, dangerous or inappropriate (Van Rooyen, 1995:13). To this end, it can be said that organisational culture refers to the dominant beliefs, values, and norms of the members of the group that form the organisation. An examination of all these definitions illustrates a degree of overlap. Thus, in general, people are seen as being from different cultures if their ways of life as a group differ significantly one from another. However, collectively, these definitions imply that culture is an objective entity, which can be identified and at the same time can separate organisation from another. It also appears that culture has to do with thinking and feelings and behavioural characteristics.

3.3. The Different Levels of Culture

According to Schein (1992:17) culture can be categorised into three levels, as shown in Figure 1. At the more visible level 1, culture represents the common behaviour of a specific group of people. In an

organisation these aspects of behaviour are taught to new members, rewarding those that fit in and sanctioning those that do not. Culture at this level is still tough to change, but not nearly as difficult as at the level of basic beliefs and values. The second level is underpinned by values which are not visible, but of which people can be made aware. At the deeper invisible level of culture where individuals in a group share beliefs in their minds which they have acquired over a long period of time, values persist over time even when group membership changes. At this level culture is extremely difficult to change since the beliefs and norms of what is good and bad, important and trivial are already in place and other norms are judged by existing ones. In Fig1 the different levels of Schein's model of organisational culture as discussed above are shown in a diagrammatic form.

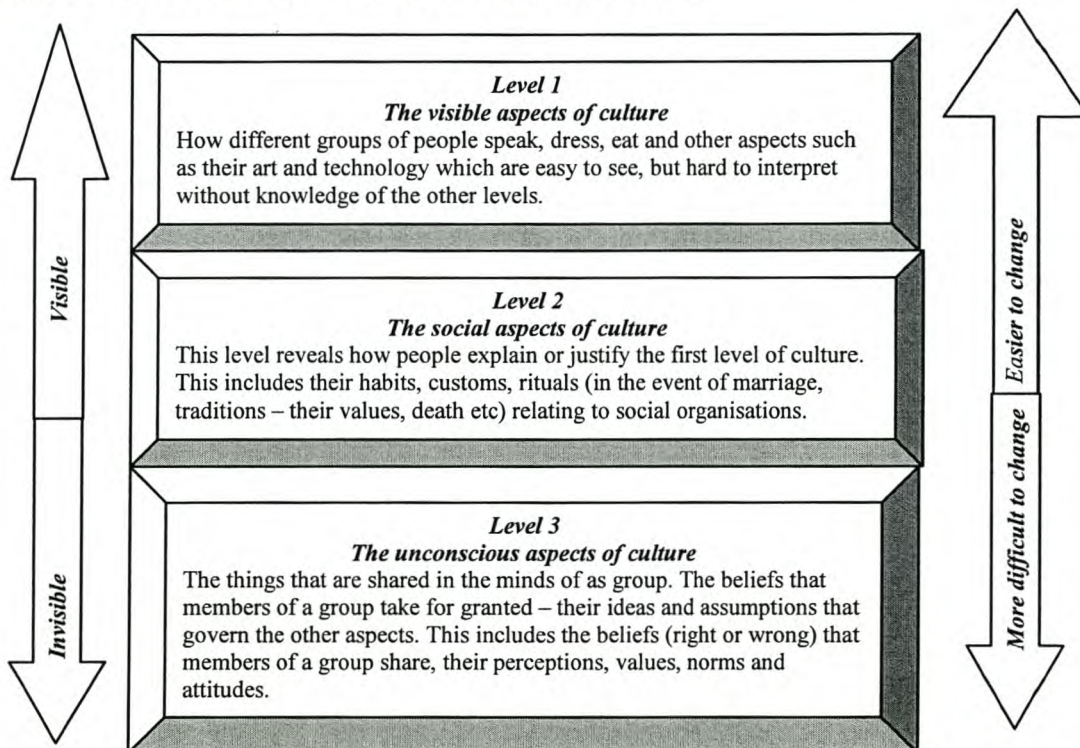


Figure1. Schein's Model of Organisational Culture. Adapted from *Organisational Culture and Leadership* (p17) by Schein, EH. 1992. San Francisco: Jossey Bass Publishers.

3.4. Dimensions of Organisational Culture

Van de Post (1997:67) suggests that the dimensions of organisational culture help explain the subtle forces that influence employee actions. They are shown in Figure 2 on a continuum from low to high:

1. *Individual initiative*: The degree of responsibility, freedom, and independence that individuals have.
2. *Risk tolerance*: The degree to which employees are encouraged to be aggressive, innovative, and risk seeking.
3. *Direction*: The degree to which to which the organisation creates clear objectives and performance expectations.

4. *Integration*: The degree to which units within the organisation are encouraged to operate in a coordinated manner.
5. *Management support*: The degree to which managers provide clear communication, assistance, and support to their subordinates.
6. *Control*: The number of rules and regulations, and the amount of direct supervision that is used to oversee and control employee behaviour.
7. *Identity*: The degree to which members identify with the organisation as a whole rather than with their particular work groups or field of professional expertise
8. *Reward system*: The degree to which reward allocations (that is, salary increases, promotions) are based on employee performance criteria in contrast to seniority, favouritism, and so on.
9. *Conflict tolerance*: The degree to which employees are encouraged to air conflicts and criticisms openly.
10. *Communication patterns*: The degree to which organisational communications are restricted to the formal hierarchy of authority.

A Structure showing the dimensions of culture

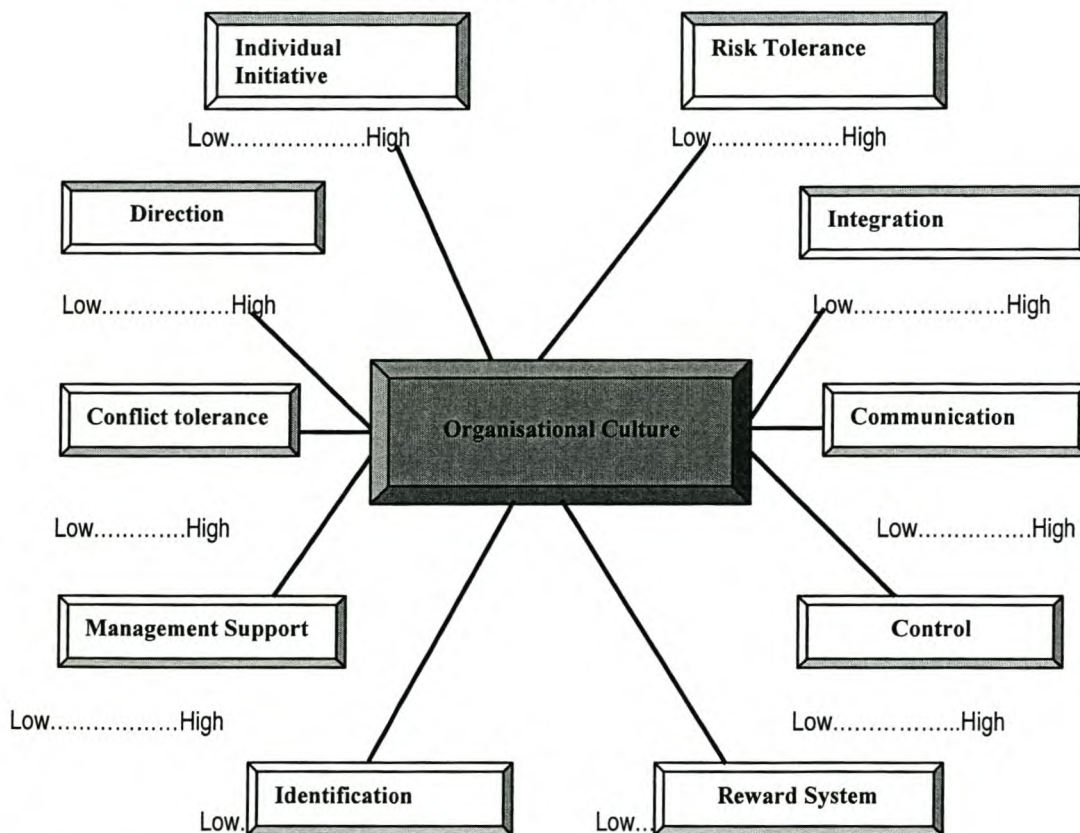


Figure 2: Dimensions of Organisational Culture adapted from the Relationship between Organisational Culture and Financial Performance Amongst Industrial Organisations listed on the Johannesburg Stock Exchange for the Period 1984 to 1995: Masters Thesis (p69) by Van der Post. University of Stellenbosch.

3.5. A typology of organisational culture

The previous sections looked at the various concepts of culture and their establishment in the organisation. This section will briefly identify some models of cultural types as these are often linked to the way organisational culture is perceived to be created. Fullop & Linstead (1999:97) used dimensions to identify four quadrant models which are based on the twin axis of Formalisation (high-low) and Centralisation (high-low) to give the four cultures of Role, Task, Atomistic (Person) and Power. This dimension was earlier developed by Harrison in 1972 as shown in Figure 3.

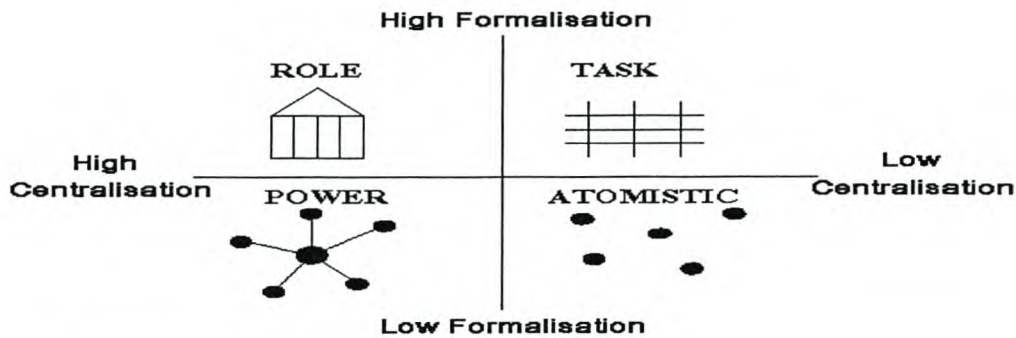


Figure 3: Culture Quadrants adapted from Harrison (1972)

Formalisation refers to the extent to which rules, policies and procedures dominate organisational activities, while centralisation refers to how much power and authority is concentrated at the top levels of an organisation. Centralisation is most evident in terms of what types of decisions are allowed at various levels of an organisation, particularly in authorising and giving rewards to employees (Fullop & Linstead 1999:97).

3.5.1. A structural view of organisational culture

The **power culture** comprises rays of power and influence spreading out from a single senior manager or a very small group of them at the centre of the web. The managers at the centre will be sensitive to everything that happens in the organisation. Faced with a problem or an opportunity, they will also make quick decisions based on their own intuition or experience. Handy (1985:183-91) refers to this culture as a web in since the spider in the middle controls what happens throughout the organisation. According to this view this type of culture is seen as, essentially, political since decisions are taken on the basis of influence rather than through a logical rational process. This type of culture is responsive and opportunistic. Little or no power in authority is delegated. According to Johnson (1999:32) a power culture can only work in a small, centralised organisation because decision-making relies on managers 'walking the job' to keep up-to-date with everything that goes on. Family businesses, small entrepreneurial companies and occasionally trade unions are likely to have this type of culture. A power

culture appears to be good at handling change because of the speed of response but may be frustrating for staff who want to make their own decisions.

The **role culture** on the other hand is the opposite of the power culture and it can be seen as temple-like pillars with, each of the pillars representing a different function such as production, sales, administration and personnel. Harrison (1992:14) suggests that role culture is highly formalised and centrally directed. He adds that role culture is bureaucratic or, in the case of the factory, it is "scientifically" managed by time and motion study and precise mechanical specifications. In this type of culture formal rules and procedures control the work in a role culture, consolidated in large manuals, which specify exactly what actions to take in every imaginable situation. Apparently, this culture represents a typical bureaucratic structure, where each function operates independently with co-ordination being carried out by senior managers at the top of the structure (represented by the temple roof) (Johnson, 1999:33).

The **task culture** is most frequently found in organisations, which place a premium on innovation and creative thinking. Harrison's symbol for task culture represents a net in Figure 3. Again Handy argues that task culture is not particularly concerned with personal power or hierarchy, but with marshalling the required resources to complete work efficiently and effectively. He further makes assertion that the task culture flourishes where creativity and innovation are desirable, particularly in organisations concerned with such activities as research and development, marketing, advertising and new ventures (Handy, 1993:183-91).

The fourth type of culture, **atomistic culture, called "person culture"** by Handy is symbolised by a cluster of unrelated blobs representing the people in the organisation. According to Senior (1997:111) atomistic culture exists only to service the needs of the participating members. It does not have an overarching objective such as is found in more conventionally structured organisations. An atomistic culture consists of a group of individuals sharing a limited range of common facilities like a suite of offices, a typing pool or a switchboard. In a person culture no one is in charge; decisions can only be taken with the full agreement of all the members and there is no control as everyone can do his/her own thing without reference to others (Johnson, 1999:34). Ironically, Harrison's dimensions as shown in Figure 3 illustrate structural dimensions rather than cognitive or behavioural ones and are certainly not symbolic ones. However, what he is indicating is that there are typical sets of behaviours, with associated mindsets that tend to go along with particular structures for example big bureaucracies or small entrepreneurial organisations. Kakabadse, Ludlow & Vinnicombe (1988:225-37) took the same

framework but looked at what can be called power levers, that is, the characteristics and different types of influences, which work best in each culture.

In Deal and Kennedy's scheme (1982:13-14) as shown in Figure 4, the major influencing factor on the culture seems to be the task of the organisation, coupled with the financial consequences of its operations. However feedback about task performance also affects the identity of employees, their sense of who they are in these organisations. Collectively, groups can develop patterns of behaviour, which may become ritualistic, symbols and symbolic behaviours (or meanings associated with particular behaviours) which are peculiar to them, their own language and jargon, and stories, legends and traditions. These features help to establish meanings and beliefs and their being transmitted, as culture is a communicative phenomenon consisting of formal and informal socialisation processes (Fulop & Linstead, (1999:100).

Amount of risk	Bet-your-company <i>High risk</i> <i>Slow feedback</i> <i>e.g. Oil company</i>	Tough-guy macho <i>High risk</i> <i>Fast feedback</i> <i>e.g. Film company</i>
	Process <i>Low risk</i> <i>Slow feedback</i> <i>e.g. Insurance company</i>	Work hard, play hard <i>Low risk</i> <i>Fast feedback</i> <i>e.g. Restaurant</i>
	Speed of feedback	

Figure 4. Source: Derived from Terrence Deal and Allen Kennedy (1982), *Corporate Culture: the Rites and Rituals of Corporate Life*, London: Penguin, pp.107-27.

The above cultural typology reflects how the different types of organisational culture can influence organisation responds to the market place. Thus, "companies that depend for success on their ability to sell an undifferentiated product tend to develop ... what we call a work hard/play hard culture". Those "that spend a great deal of research and development money before they even know if the final product will be successful or not, tend to develop ... a better your company culture". Their "tough-guy, macho culture" represents "a world of individualists" fighting to gain big wins, whereas the "process culture" is one that "concentrate on how work is done - a possible bureaucracy" such that would be found in a less competitive market place.

A more behavioural view is that of Alvesson (1993:118). He uses a metaphor concept, believing each metaphor to be "a crucial element in how people relate to reality" and that it "might encourage a deeper, more sceptical and reflective perception of what people mean by culture" and be more valuable than a pure scientific approach. His 10 main metaphors, based on the interpretation of the work of others, are cultures such as exchange regulator, compass, social glue, sacred cow, manager-controlled rites,

affect-regulator, non-order, blinder, world-closure, and dramaturgical domination. Most of these reflect a culture of management direction, control or manipulation. Alvesson goes on to suggest "ambiguity" and proposes a "multiple cultural configuration" perspective incorporating aspects of people's social life and not just organisational life as seen, even determined, by a "management-centric" world (Alvesson 1993:118).

From this discussion on the cultural typologies, it has been noted that the differing models of culture types reflect the different underlying principles as to whether culture is something an organisation is (action view), or something an organisation has (structural view), or whether culture is primarily about people (behavioural view) rather than organisations. It also appeared that employees can learn to adapt the way they work to the existing culture and encourage other colleagues to do likewise, so that the work is more effective and satisfying. To this end, notwithstanding, the theory about the different cultural types, in real life organisations is found that types are more likely to work in combination than one culture becoming predominant.

3.6. Sources of Organisational Culture

Robbins (1990:446) suggests that there are forces within the organisation which act to maintain the culture. Once a culture is in place, there are forces within the organisation that act to maintain it by exposing employees to a set of similar experiences. These forces further reinforce the identity of members in the organisation from other organisations. The three forces that play the most important part in the process of sustaining a culture are the selection practices, the actions of top management and the organisation's socialisation methods (Robbins, 1990:446). These forces will be discussed below.

3.6.1. Selection

The selection process provides information to applicants, which helps them to learn about the organisation. If they perceive a conflict between their values and those of the organisation, they can eliminate themselves from the applicant pool. This attempt to ensure a proper match, whether purposely or inadvertently, results in the hiring of people who have common values (ones essentially consistent with those of the organisation) or at least a good portion of those values. Robbins (1990: 446) states that the selection process sustains an organisation's culture by selecting out those individuals who might attack or undermine its core values.

3.6.2. Top management

Employees observe management's behaviour, when for instance one of their colleagues is reprimanded or fired because he/she publicly disagreed with the company's position. Such incidents then, over time, establish norms that filter down through the organisation and convey whether risk-taking is desirable; how much freedom managers should grant their subordinates; what appropriate dress is; what actions will pay off in terms of pay raises, promotions, and other rewards. (Steenkamp & Van Schoor, 2002:3).

3.6.3. Socialisation

Once a new employee is appointed it follows that he will undergo the process of induction and orientation. Not only does this process introduce the new employee to learn about job roles and responsibilities, but he will also be informed on "how things are done around there". Robbins (1990:449) also adds that, once on the job, a manager or supervisor often becomes a coach, to further guide and mould the new member. In some cases, a formal training programme will even be offered to ensure that the employee learns the organisation's culture.

3.6.4. New members joining an organisation

According to Steenkamp & Van Schoor (2002:3), new members joining the organisation may bring new beliefs, values and assumptions. Environmental changes may cause the beliefs, values and assumptions of an organisation to be no longer appropriate or useful, creating the need for new ideas. They add that the introduction of computer technology is an example of an environmental driving force that has brought about large-scale changes in the running of organisations such as financial institutions. Sometimes the changes brought about by management may meet with resistance as employees are uncertain about the future and underlying factors tend to be ignored, but once the cultural values are aligned with the changes they are ultimately accepted.

3.6.5. The learning experiences of the current employees

Through learning, current employees develop behavioural patterns that set their organisation apart from others. Over time employees adopt an unwritten set of rules that determine how things are done in that particular organisation. In turn every new employee will be inducted into this unwritten web of values, beliefs and assumptions (Steenkamp & Van Schoor, 2002:3). Sometimes societal values, which determine people's behaviour, may be in conflict with organisational values or their subsequent practices. It is true particularly in South Africa where people with different world views often have to merge in an organisational context.

3.7. How culture is maintained in the organisation

Learning about culture pro-actively creates, acquires and transfers knowledge, which leads to a change in behaviour on the basis of new knowledge and insights. According to Robbins (1999:86) the following are ways in which culture can be learned:

Stories. Organisational stories typically contain a narrative of significant events or people including among others the organisation's founders, rule-breaking, rags-to-riches successes, reductions in the workforce, relocation of employees, reaction to past mistakes and organisational coping. Organisational stories anchor the present in the past, provide explanations and legitimacy for current practices, and exemplify what is important to the organisation.

Rituals. Rituals are repetitive sequences of activities that express and reinforce the key values of the organisation, indicate goals are most important, which people are important, and which are expandable. Rituals of the organisation include training programmes, promotion, and assessment, point to what is important in the organisation, 'reinforce the way we do things around here' and signal what is important and valued.

Material symbols. Material symbols convey information about who is important and the kind of behaviour that is desirable in the organisation. The layouts of an organisation's facilities, dress attire, the types of automobiles top executives are provided with, and the presence or absence of corporate aircraft are examples of material symbols. Johnson & Scholes (1997:69-74) add the following elements and refer to them as cultural web:

Routine ways: that members of the organisation behave towards each other, and that link different parts of the organisation, comprise 'the way we do things around here', which at their best lubricate the working of the organisation and may provide a distinctive and beneficial organisational competency. However, they can also represent a taken-for-grantedness about how things should happen which is extremely difficult to change and highly protective of core assumptions in the paradigm.

The Control systems, measurements and reward systems emphasise what it is important to monitor in the organisation and on which to focus attention and activity.

Power structures are likely to be associated with the key constructs of the organisation. The most powerful managerial groupings in the organisation are likely to be the ones most associated with core assumptions and beliefs about what is important.

The Formal organisational structures, or the more formal ways, in which the organisations work, are likely to reflect power structures and again, to delineate important relationships and emphasise what is important in the organisation.

It can be seen that the cultural web is all encompassing in the organisational elements. Changing organisational structures, control systems and even power structures will not necessarily bring about a

paradigm shift in cultural change. For this to happen, a much greater effort must be put into bringing about changes in the other elements of the cultural web.

3.8. Effects of Strong Culture in the Organisation

Steenkamp & Van Schoor (2002: 9) argue that organisations with strong culture enable employees to stick together which provide consistency and direction. The following characteristics are mentioned as attributes found in such organisations and enhance performance:

- **Goal alignment**, which means that all the employees, shares a common vision, which provides direction for their practices. People know instinctively what to do in certain situations because it is the 'company way'.
- People are **motivated** by their sense of commonality and the focus that it provides. There is a general feeling of contentment with the organisation and the work environment.
- Strong cultures **do not have to control by means of reams of policies and procedures**. The innate sense of what is required and accepted in the culture will determine appropriate behaviour.

Furthermore, a strong culture should be congruent with the conditions of the industry. At the same time a restrictive culture will not fit in a dynamic environment such as can be found in advertising companies. Essentially, members of the organisation should be able to change and innovate appropriately when they encounter organisational problems. This requires creativity and experience. According to Fullop & Linstead (1999:94) strong cultures are intended to engender commitment, dedication and devotion, enthusiasm, passion and even love in employees. An example may be when employees 'feel' for the company i.e. it touches them in some way they will follow its leaders anywhere because they value, even idolise everything it stands for. This may be true in the case of flight attendants who are required to smile from inside or debt collectors who have to project the kind of image that would make debtors pay their bills.

Equally, a swamp culture is characterised by antagonism, legalism, protectionism and politics. It is a culture where people are covering their backs all the time and where attempts at transformation are enforced by rules, systems and regulations (Steenkamp & Van Schoor, 2002:15). Such culture creates a false sense of security and people remain dependent on the apparent order that prevails. In consequence, this situation stifles creativity and free thinking, resulting in a culture that is inward looking. Bates in Fullop & Linstead (1999:95) looks at how order is maintained in strong cultures and identifies six processes:

- *Taking care of people* - efforts are made to make people feel safe, valued, and comfortable and secure, fully employed and protected, but it also means, as Deal and Kennedy (1982:56) put it, "not permitting them to fail". This is sometimes known as "tough love".
- *Giving people their head* - people are given freedom, responsibility and considerable autonomy in how the task is achieved, but this freedom depends entirely on whether they 'deliver'. It requires the employee to take the corporate mission personally, to take it literally *to heart*. This is referred to as 'loose-tight' control
- *Having fun* - critical resistance to control can be disarmed by encouraging an atmosphere of playfulness and a sense of fun. In many companies with strong cultures joking is common, parties' frequent, fancy dress, pranks and humorous gifts and spoof awards habitual. Everyone joins in; affection, loyalty and community are developed; having a good time and laughing at oneself are encouraged while questioning the point of the event is discouraged. It is not that employees do not see through the hokum-they acknowledge it *and* value it for its playfulness, its non-seriousness. In this way, criticism is neutralised.
- *Giving personal gift* - organisations can reward employees with personal gifts direct from the CEO after good performance. The range of gifts, being direct and personal, is supposed to have more impact than a mere monetary bonus. It is argued that this affects the individual cognitively *as*, accepting the gift from the leader is tantamount to accepting the leader's definition of the corporate mission, and also *emotionally* as such a gift can physically trigger positive emotions about the organisation which can be recalled for a long period
- *Spelling it out* - the vagueness of feelings is always grounded in specific rules, which define standards. Even if these rules are informal and implicit, violation of them can be serious to the point of termination.
- *Getting Heavy* - *strong* cultures, in short, enable organisational employees to stick together (Deal and Kennedy 1982:56).

Finally, strong cultures do not only have to manage the positive, softer emotions like love and affection fear, but also anger and jealousy that can also be powerfully manipulated (Fullop & Linstead, 1999:96). It is clear that organisations with strong cultures do not only seek complete loyalty and compliance from members, but also try to become the dominant basis for a member's identity.

3.9. Implications of Culture on Performance

A major benefit of organisational culture is that it can enhance productivity, quality, and morale. A culture that emphasises productivity and quality encourages employees to be more productive and

quality conscious. According to Peters & Waterman in Moorhead & Griffin (1995:451) who analysed in highly successful American firms leading to successful management practises, the following cultural values were found:

- *Bias for action.* Managers in these companies are expected to make decisions even if all the facts are not available. Delaying decision-making in these institutions is the same as never making a decision. On average, organisations with cultural values that include a bias for action outperform organisations without such values.
- *Stay close to the customer.* Companies whose organisational cultures value customers over everything else will out perform firms without this value. Focusing on the customer, meeting the customer's needs, and pampering the customer when necessary, are all actions that lead to superior performance. Keeping close to the customer is not based on a marketing handbook; instead customer satisfaction lies at the core of the organisation culture.
- *Autonomy and entrepreneurship.* Successful organisations fight the lack of innovation and the bureaucracy usually associated with large size. Usually a company is broken into small, more manageable pieces and independent, creative, even risk-taking activity then encouraged within these smaller business segments. These actions are not merely encouraged; they are the "stuff of organisational legends".
- *Productivity through people.* Successful organisations recognise that their most important assets are their people-both employees and managers-and that the organisation's purpose is to let them flourish. Commitment to people is not simply written on plaques or announced in company magazines; it's a basic value of the organisation culture, a belief that treating people with respect and dignity is not only appropriate, but also essential to success.
- *Hands-on management.* Senior managers should stay in touch with the firm's essential business. It is an expectation, reflecting a deeply-embedded cultural norm that managers should manage not from behind the closed doors of their offices but by "wandering around" the plant, the design facility, the research and development department.
- *Stick to the knitting.* These organisations reject the concept of diversification, the practice of buying and operating business in unrelated industries, they rely on the core competencies, or what the organisation does best.
- *Simple Form, Lean Staff.* Successful organisations tend to have few administrative layers and relatively small corporate staff groups. In many organisations managers measure their status, prestige, and importance by the number of people who report to them. In excellently managed companies, however, importance is measured not by the number of people who report to a manager but by the manager's impact on the organisation's performance.

- *Simultaneously Loosely and Tightly Organised.* These organisations are tightly organised because all their members understand and believe in the companies' values. This common cultural bond makes strong glue that holds the organisations together. Simultaneously, however, the organisations are loosely organised because they tend to have less administrative overhead, fewer staff members, and fewer rules and regulations. All this encourages innovation and risk-taking.

In conclusion, the significance of culture on organisation implies that organisational leaders and management need to get out of the office and to communicate with the people of the organization. It should be mentioned that those companies which are successful have an obsession about the customer, usually biased towards quality, reliability, or service and innovation. Finally, those leaders who develop a philosophy and live the philosophy that involves everyone within the organization with the overall success of the company will become better for it.

3.10. The Functions of Organisational Culture

Ott (1989:68) identified four functions of culture which are discussed as follows: Firstly, it provides shared patterns of cognitive interpretations so that organisational members know how they are expected to act and think. Secondly, it provides shared patterns of affect, an emotional sense of involvement and commitment to organisational values and moral codes so that members may know what they are expected to value and how they are expected to feel. Thirdly, it defines boundaries allowing identification of members and non-members. Finally, culture operates as an organisational control mechanism, prescribing and prohibiting certain behaviours. Schein (1992:50-84) sees three functions which are fulfilled by organisational culture. In the first instance it plays a role in solving the organisation's problems related to survival and adaptation in the external environment. The problems of external adaptation specify the coping cycle that any system must be able to maintain in relation to its changing environment. The problems of external adaptation are:

- Mission and strategy: obtaining a shared understanding of the core mission, primary task, manifest and latent functions;
- Goals: development of consensus on the means to be used to attain the goals such as organisation structure, division of labour, reward system and authority system;
- Measurement: development of consensus on the criteria to be used in measuring how well the group is doing in meeting its goals such as the information and control system; and
- Correction: development of consensus on the appropriate remedial or repair strategies to be used if goals are being met.

In the second instance, culture plays a role of solving the organisation's problem related to the integration of its internal processes to ensure the capacity to continue to survive and adapt. The internal issue that must be dealt with by the group are:

- Common language and conceptual categories: members have to communicate and understand each other. If they cannot, a group is impossible by definition
- Group boundaries and criteria for inclusion and exclusion: an important area of culture is the shared consensus on who is in and who is out by what criteria membership is determined.
- Power and status: every organisation must determine its pecking order, its criteria and rules for how one gets, maintains and loses power. Consensus in this area is crucial to help members manage feelings of aggression.
- Intimacy, friendship and love: every organisation must determine its rules of the game for peer relationships, for relationships between the sexes and for the manner in which openness and intimacy are to be handled in the context of managing the organisation's tasks.
- Reward and punishments: every group has to know what its heroic and sinful behaviours are, what gets rewarded and what gets punished.
- Ideology and religion: every organisation faces unexplainable events which must be given meaning so that members can respond to them and avoid the anxiety of dealing with the unexplainable and uncontrollable.

Finally, culture does more than solve internal and external problems. It also serves the basic function of reducing the anxiety that humans experience when they are faced with cognitive uncertainty or overload.

3.11. The Influence of Culture on Employee Behaviour in the Organisation

According to Smit & Cronje (1997:446) the content of culture (visible as well as invisible aspects) influences the direction of behaviour and this is precisely the reason why managers are concerned about the beliefs, norms and values of subordinates. The content of culture can therefore be an asset or liability to an organisation. It is an asset if it eases communication, facilitates organisational decision-making and control and facilitates cooperation and productivity. The result is increased productivity since these results are accomplished with fewer resources than would otherwise be possible. Culture becomes a liability when important shared beliefs and values interfere with the needs of the organisation and its customers. Because of the influence of the cultural content on behaviour, the individual or group:

- may not want to behave as called for by the situation;
- may not understand how to behave in order to be efficient; or
- may not be able to behave appropriately due to a lack of cultural competency.

The more closely actual behaviour matches required behaviour, the more effectively and productively the individual or organisation accomplishes its objectives. If actual organisational behaviour patterns do not serve the organisation's interests, organisational performance is impaired. (Smit & Cronje, 1997:446-7).

3.12. General Considerations in Managing Culture

Trice & Beyer (1993:356-78) cite four general considerations in managing culture:

- Firstly managers must be culturally aware, i.e. they should understand and take into account what culture is and how it works. Culture, by its nature is not a simple managerial tool. It takes time to emerge from some degree of consensus among people. Cultures cannot be imposed from above or manufactured at will. Culture is not a monolithic force. Although cultures have at their core substance and forms that are shared, members of a culture are not uniform in the degree to which they share in the substance and form. The shared aspects of culture that produce uniformities have negative as well as positive implications. The notion that managing culture will be a quick and easy fix for managerial problems remains a fallacy. Culture is inherently symbolic and managers mistakenly assume that they can manage their cultures by what they say rather than what they do. Culture is also inevitably dynamic and fuzzy, it is not fixed, it is always being constructed and reconstructed.
- Secondly, managers must assess their own organisation's culture accurately. A one-shot cultural audit will not assure that attempted interventions will yield the desired results. Equally, efforts to assess culture cannot be based only on the ruminations of top management. For this reason managers should have access to inside sources of information in order to assess substance fully. Using outsiders can also assist managers in gaining a full perspective because outsiders invariably assist insiders to surface even some of the deeper aspects of their cultures.
- Thirdly, managers should recognise and use the levers they have available to influence their cultures. Managers can gain considerable leverage on managing cultures if they are alert to the possibilities provided by the following six elements. *Ideologies* comprise the substance of cultures and managers who seek to manage culture should also focus on ideologies which fit the situation. They should not attempt to incorporate beliefs and values to which they themselves do not subscribe. Another potent lever is to be found in *cultural forms* and *symbols*.

Because managers initiate and supervise many activities and programs that function as cultural rites or rituals, they need to be aware of the cultural meaning these activities communicate. *Socialisation* also has important outcomes and since managers have control over the socialisation process it provides them with a powerful lever. *Subcultures* present a lever that managers can employ in managing culture. Adding or subtracting occupational subcultures will affect the cultures of workgroups involved and could even alter the overall culture, e.g. a correctional facility that discharged all its psychiatrists and social workers would likely change its overall culture to a more custodial than treatment-oriented culture. *Leadership* also influences culture. All managers are not naturally cultural leaders. They may, therefore, need to cultivate certain sets of behaviours in order to be effective in managing their cultures. Cultural leaders need to be effective role models, create impressions of success and confidence in their followers, be good at articulating beliefs and values, communicate high expectations and confidence in subordinates. In addition, they need to have strong convictions about what they are trying to achieve and then manage to achieve some measure of success in the eyes of their followers. *Environment* is also a lever that may be employed. Organisations cannot survive without their environments which provide them the resources they need. Although outside the boundaries of organisation, environments are not totally outside the control of managers. They can influence their environments in two ways that is the objective conditions in the environment and how members perceive their environments. Because they make decisions as to what products and service to produce, what markets to enter, where and how to obtain resources and where to locate facilities, managers choose many of the environments in which their organisations operate.

- Fourthly, managers must resolve the ethical dilemmas in managing culture. Three ethical concerns about the deliberate management of organisational cultures have been raised. It could spoil or pollute the product of indigenous natural resources; those who manage culture may use it to exploit others; that managing culture is an insidious and subtle way to manipulate people and reduce individual freedom and autonomy.

Finally, managers need to be clear about whether they seek to maintain existing culture, change existing cultures or establish new ones. Four general criteria have been suggested for consideration in this regard, i.e. organisational performance, the fit between existing culture and the organisation's task and structure, the fit between the existing cultures and the organisation's environment, the fit between strategy and existing cultures, and the characteristics and personalities of top management.

3.13. Suggested Strategies to Change Organisational Culture

3.13.1. Introduction

The question that can be asked is whether organisational culture can be changed. Many authors on organisational change agree that change does not take place quickly, particularly in the public sector's strongly established cultures. The researcher believes that changing the organisational culture to fit the desired strategic changes is possible but, as much of the literature cautions, this can be an extremely difficult and lengthy process particularly if the culture is a strong one. Harvey & Brown (1996:74) suggest that the following factors are important in cultural change:

- Understand the old culture. Managers can't change their course until they know where they are.
- Encourage change in employees. Reinforce people in changing the old culture and those with new ideas.
- Follow outstanding units. Recognise outstanding units in the organisation, and use them as a model for change.
- Don't impose cultural change. Let employees be involved in finding their own new approaches to change and an improved culture will emerge.
- Lead with a vision. The vision provides a guiding principle for change, but must be bought into by employees.
- Large-scale change takes time. It may take three to five years for significant, organisation-wide cultural change to take effect.
- Live the new culture. Top management values, behaviours, and actions speak louder than words.

In conclusion, any changes to the organisational culture must focus on what people value and what they do.

3.13.2. Biological Model

The biological model of organisational transformation, developed by Gouillart & Kelly (1995:6), consists of four broad categories of therapy namely: reframing, restructuring, revitalisation, and renewal. Table 2 provides the reader with a broad overview of the four categories of therapy and the changes that they will bring about.

These actions are undertaken in order to allow transformation each impact on a specific area within the organisation. Gouillart & Kelly (1995:6) likens each of these areas of impact to a specific biological function within the human body, thereby comparing it to a living methodology.

INTERVENTIONS	ACTION	RESULT/AREA OF IMPACT
. Reframing	. Changing Organisation Rules through Information Rules; . Invent New Business; . Acknowledge Market Forces.	. Nervous System . Reproductive System; . Senses.
. Restructuring	. Construct an Economic Model; . Align Physical Infrastructure; . Redesign Work Architecture.	. Cardiovascular System; . Skeletal System; . Redesign Work Architecture.
. Revitalisation	. Achieve Modification; . Create the Vision; . Build the Measures.	. Mental Energy; . Sense of Purpose; . Sense of Commitment.
. Renewal:	. Develop the Organisation; . Build Individual Learning; . Create Renewal Structure.	. Sense of belonging; . Self- Actualisation; . Sense of Gratification.

Table 2 (Source: Adapted from Gouillart, F.J. & Kelly, J.N. 1995. Transforming the Organisation. McGraw-Hill).

Organisation transformation is defined as the orchestrated redesign of the genetic architecture of the organisation, achieved by working simultaneously along the four dimensions of reframing, restructuring, revitalisation and renewal:

- *Reframing* is the shifting of the organisation's perception of what it is and what it can achieve. It addresses the organisational mind. Reframing opens the organisational mind and fuses it with new visions and a new resolve.
- *Restructuring* is a girding of the organisational loins getting it achieve a competitive level of performance. Restructuring is the domain where pay-offs are fastest and cultural difficulties are greatest, often making the anxieties associated with this process avoidable side effect. Many organisations stop at restructuring thinking that the quick results that they have achieved are enough to address the process of transformation. This unfortunately is very far removed from the reality because they won't gain true health unless they use the quick wins to fuel longer term transformation programmes.
- *Revitalisation* is about igniting growth by linking the organisation's body to the environment. The sources of growth are often elusive, making the process of achieving growth more challenging and protracted than restructuring. Revitalisation is the most important single factor that distinguishes transformation from mere downsizing.
- *Renewal* deals with the people side of the transformation and with the spirit of the organisation. It is about equipping individuals with new skills and new purposes, and thus allowing the organisation to generate itself over a continuous and protracted period. Renewal is the most subtle and difficult, the least explored and potentially the most powerful of the transformation dimensions.

Using the biological model during the organisational change process helps to achieve mobilisation through the process of mustering the mental energy needed to feed the transformational process. It creates the vision for the shared mental framework by giving form to the future. It also builds a measurement system, where leadership must translate the vision into a set of measures and targets and define the actions needed to reach the targets.

3.13.3. Three Phases of the Planned Change Model

Lewis, Goodman & Fandt (1998:380) propose three phases of the planned change process as described below in Figure 5

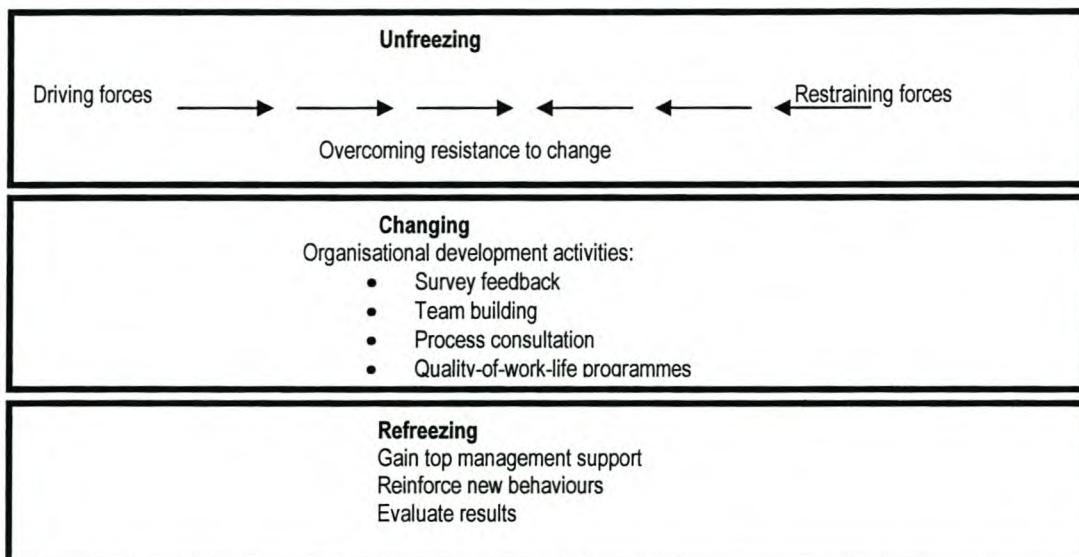


Figure 5 (Source: Adapted from Lewis, Goodman and Fandt. 1998. Management Challenges in the 21st century. South Western College Publishing.

It is generally acknowledged that the successful change in organisations should follow three steps:

The first step, **unfreezing** the status quo, movement to a new state, involves developing an initial awareness of the need for change and the forces supporting and resisting change. The status quo can be considered to be an equilibrium state. To move from this equilibrium, that is to overcome the pressures of both individual and organisational resistance, unfreezing is necessary. The driving forces, which direct behaviour away from the status quo, can be increased. The restraining forces, which hinder movement from the existing equilibrium can be decreased. Driving forces for change are either internal or external. While external forces are fundamentally beyond the control of management, internal forces generally are within the control of management. For instance, the key environmental factors which include economic, technology, political, and social forces as discussed in Chapter 4, may provide the impetus for change in an organisation. **Internal forces**, may also contribute towards change in the organisation. **Strategies for Unfreezing**. According to Lewis et al (1998:383) to be successful change process must overcome the status quo by unfreezing old behaviours, processes, or structures.

Unfreezing occurs only if the strength of the driving forces exceeds the strength of the restraining forces. The second step is **changing**, focuses on learning new required behaviours. This process involves **Organisational Development (OD)** approach which is a process of planned change that uses behavioural science knowledge, theory, and technology to help an organisation improve its capacity for effective change. In addition OD has a number of intervention activities that are useful and some mainly focused on people-focused change. These include survey feedback, team building, and process consultation.

The third step is **refreezing**, which centres on reinforcing new behaviours, usually by positive results, feelings of accomplishment, or rewards from others. There are commonly employed approaches that are useful in accomplishing the freezing step of the change process such as the following:

Gain Top-Management Support. Formal or informal sponsorship of a change by top management gives legitimacy to new behaviours. It is conceded that if employees see top management support and accept the change, they will more readily follow suit. **Reinforce New Behaviours.** New behaviours such the reward systems should be carefully considered when planning change, and redesign if necessary.

Evaluate the change. Management need to know if the change has had the desired effects. Evaluation enables the manager making the change to establish the criteria for judging its success before the change is instituted. There are also general strategies for dealing with resistance to change are identified and shown in the diagram in Table 3 such as education and communication, participation and involvement, facilitation and support, negotiation and agreement, manipulation and co-optation, and explicit and implicit coercion.

APPROACH	COMMONLY USED	ADVANTAGES	DRAWBACKS
Education and communication	Where there is a lack of information or in accurate information and analysis	Once persuaded, people will often help with the implementation of the change	Can be very time-consuming if lots of people are involved
Participation and involvement	Where the initiators do not have enough information to design the change, and power resistance	People who participate will be committed to implementing change, and any relevant information they have will be integrated into the change plan	Can be very time-consuming if participants design an inappropriate change
Facilitation and support	Where people are resisting because of adjustment problems	No other approach works as well with adjustment problems	Can be time-consuming and expensive and can still fail
Manipulation and co-option	Where other tactics will not work or are too expensive	It can be a relatively quick and inexpensive solution to resistance problems	Can lead to future problems if people feel manipulated
Explicit and implicit coercion	Where speed is essential, and the change initiators posses considerable power	It is speedy and can overcome any kind of resistance	Can be risky if it leaves people mad at the initiators

Table 3. Methods of dealing with resistance to change adapted from Lewis et al (1998: 383).

3.14. Conclusion

Finally, it can be said that organisational culture legitimises behaviour through positive and negative sanctions on what is expected, desired and forbidden within a specific cultural context. In this chapter an overview of the different concepts of culture, its characteristics, types of culture and along with evidence from section 3.9 on culture performance were discussed. In the discussion two major observations were noted: Organisational culture should be regarded as increasingly important by managers in organisations, consultants who work with organisations. The different cultural types were examined and examples were also provided in order to demonstrate how these have implications on managers in real life organisations.

It should be noted that the organisation and its culture ultimately represent the single most important aspect that can be a stumbling blocks to success. It is clear that organisational culture is created from the top. Linked to effectiveness a culture has a positive impact on an organisation when it points behaviour in the right direction. Alternatively, it has a negative impact when it points behaviour wrong direction. Consequently, this chapter concluded by suggesting some models of changing organisational culture. The last two chapters have concluded the discussion on the theoretical frameworks on how service delivery can be enhanced in public institutions and deliberated on the effects on organisational culture which can either be a barrier for change or can impact positively for organisational effectiveness. The next chapter will concentrate on the descriptive analysis of the SAPS and examine how the organisational culture in the agency impact on service delivery.

CHAPTER 4 EMPIRICAL DESCRIPTION ON POLICE CULTURE

4.1. Introduction

This chapter begins by outlining the historical background of the SAPS. The aim is to provide a broader understanding on how the prevailing culture in the SAPS was inherited from the past legacy that was dominant and a form of survival in the police work. A brief analysis on how the past political dispensation that contributed to the present bureaucracy and an agency that is still being perceived as internally focused will be described. The reform process and some of the transformation policy initiatives that were aimed at changing the policing function from narrow law enforcement to an agency that provides police services to the community will also be examined. Clearly, the environment in which the police operate in fulfilling the constitutional obligations and the current philosophy of community policing and service delivery plays an influential role that needs to be discussed.

Ideally, the core of this chapter is to demonstrate how police culture influences performance. Against this background the chapter will identify some visible features that characterise the police culture. According to Reynecke (1995:26) the SA Police (SAP) as it was formally known before 1994 new political dispensation as well as other policing agencies in South Africa were organised as paramilitary organisations. The term paramilitary appear to have several definitions as Auten (1985:123) suggest among the following:

- Organised military but not part of or in co-operation with the official armed forces of a country, having to do with a military force so organised in its tactics.
- Existing where there is no military service or existing alongside the military services and professionally non-military but formed on an underlying military pattern as a potential auxiliary or diversionary military organisation.

The term paramilitary and its legacy as inherited by the present SAPS will discussed in detail in Section 4.3.

4.2. Characteristics of Police culture

Police culture is described as something that exists from the perspective of the police officer who frequently deals with both criminals and the public as part of his or her occupation. Also known as 'cop culture' it is established value system and craft rules, which shape the working rules of police organisations. In Brown's reference to police culture (1995:70) it is put into the category of tough guy macho culture. It is further described in terms of operational police reacting quickly to crime on the

street, not as bureaucratic organisation that has operational policing as an arm of its service. The following are among the characteristics of police indicators:

4.2.1. Mistrust

The issue of mistrust has been identified as a crucial aspect of police occupational culture. In describing trust with its negative connotations, it is stated that police culture, or socialisation, breeds a lack of trust which leads to suspicion, unhealthy cynicism, or what Reiner (1992) refers to as 'the seize mentality'. In a positive sense it has been said that a lack of trust could be seen as a necessary weapon in the police armoury in order to properly protect the community from criminals. Mistrust also occurs between management and street officers. This is described as being caused by the fact that police management structure is generally developed along the lines of paramilitary and ranks and insignia are usually in place to remind the street officers of the command structure.

4.2.2. Service and Getting the job done and Police solidarity

The idea of policing being a 'mission' and being more than a job (Prenzler, 1997:47) indicates the service commitment inherent in police culture. This commitment could be translated in the negative sense into the job done at the expense of justice and the rule of law. In the positive sense, getting the job done could be interpreted as being just that. Despite the constant scrutiny and adversity, positive culture still is able to maintain an ethos.

Foremost among all values, attitudes, and practices of the police culture is the bond of solidarity between officers. Police normally work in an environment perceived as hostile and unpredictable, police culture offers its members reassurance that other officers will pull their weight in police work, that they will defend, back up and assist their colleagues when confronted with external threats, and they will maintain secrecy in the face of external investigators. In return of loyalty and solidarity, members of the police culture will enjoy considerable individual autonomy to get on with the job (Goldsmith, 1990:93).

4.2.3. Bureaucracy

Bureaucracy in the police organisations has a long history as an organisational form and is still a dominant model for understanding the operation of many police agencies (Mcleod, 2003:363). Among the attributes of this model are a hierarchical chain of command, impersonal relations, specialised functions, and clear division of labour. As a result, the rigidity of bureaucracy inherited by the current community policing from the traditional law enforcement style of policing impact negatively on police service. For instance, it tends to be slow to incorporate new technologies, its inadequacy for resolving differences among various levels of employees, lack of coordination. These characteristics are

particularly limiting when implementing innovative philosophy such as community policing that requires flexibility and collaboration.

Police bureaucracy is visible at police station level see for example *Annexures A & B*, it is common to find departments which render related functional activities and are supposed to be integrated under one single unit but instead they operate under different commands with little coordination. The negative effect is that although all the different units aim to achieve the station's common goals but they often compete and when a particular unit fails to carry its task properly, it easy to blame another unit as being responsible for failure. For instance the officers will justify their failure to react promptly to a crime scene because all the vehicles are out on patrol service. The following units depend on each other namely, Crime Prevention Unit require good Intelligence gathering and profiling of the area for better understanding of the nature of crimes and occurrences in the area they serve, Human Resource, Administration and finance can be integrated into a single unit.

4.2.4. Police Corruption

In South Africa police corruption has been described as an ongoing challenge facing the police transformation process. Adding to the problem is the fact that corruption is extremely difficult to study in a direct, quantitative, and empirical manner. This is further complicated by the fact that incidents of corruption are never reported or recorded, official data on corruption are best regarded as measures of a police agency's anti-corruption activity, not actual level of corruption. For instance police corruption may occur when a detective accepts money from a criminal suspect who wants to ensure that not enough evidence will be gathered to lead to a conviction in court. In such a case, as in most other incidents of police corruption, neither the corrupt police member nor the criminal suspect will report the incident as both are liable for criminal sanction. More recently, the media has regularly made news headlines to describe stories about police corruption. The following newspaper headlines represent a small fraction of what has appeared in newspapers in recent times:

- 'Gauteng police chief facing fraud charges' (*The Star* 12 November 2000);
- 'Rotten heist cops still on the beat, Officer supplied armour-piercing bullets for highway robbery' (*Sunday Times* 4 March 2001);
- 'Police admit link to child brothels, three officers are being investigated for accepting bribes or owning Hillbrow establishments, police chief says.' (*The Star* 07 March 2001);
- 'MEC speaks out on police corruption. Mokonyane shocked that senior officers worked hand-in-hand with criminals' (*The Star* 29 March 2001);
- 'Stiff sentence for guilty officer urged' (*The Star* 30 March 2001);

- 'Prisoner bribed cops to be with me, says girlfriend' (*Sunday Times* 08 April 2001).
- 'Give me R300 and I'll drop charges, police sergeant arrested in sting involving woman and Anti-Corruption Unit' (*Saturday Star* 12 May 2001).

However, it should be clear that the information that comes from the media cannot be relied upon as the accurate because some of the cases are mere allegations and often take a long time to prosecute and follow up, or by the time they are finalised, there is insufficient evidence.

4.3. Background history of paramilitary Culture in the SA Police

This section will discuss the background history of military history in the SAPS in terms of the different phases that the agency had undergone from the early foundation to the decades of political unrest until the transitional phase, leading up to the transformation process that took place after the new political dispensation.

Many historians confirm that since its inception in 1913 until the political landscape changed in April 1994, the SAP was organised along military lines with command structures. According to Van Rooyen (1995:10) it was built largely on old colonial models of "fire-force policing", and police officers bore military ranks. An authoritarian style of leadership was the norm. This style of leadership related to the control, command and communication lines, which emphasised the fact that subordinates were not allowed to question their superior. Ayres (1994) defines the paramilitary structure as having a chief -- the leader -- at the top of the organisational pyramid, leading and directing down where all the followers eagerly await to obey orders. According to Auten (1985: 123), the SAP was structured along paramilitary lines and exhibited paramilitary characteristics.

In addition, Reynecke (1995:27-30) using Auten's definition of the term paramilitary, suggested that the SAP was also structured along paramilitary lines and this manifested in military culture which bore the following features:

- A centralised command structure exists with a rigidly adhered to chain of command. Subordinates should follow the channel of the hierarchy to communicate their ideas or to complain.
- Rigid superior-subordinate relationship defined by prerogatives of rank exists. Subordinates adhere to the higher rank despite the fact that they may have better ideas. This resulted in initiative being taken away from subordinates. The higher rank is always obeyed and it is taken for granted that a person in a higher rank is always right.

- Control is exerted through the issuing of commands, directives or general orders. Discretion and initiatives are inhibited by all the rules and regulations. Subordinates must obey commands and are charged departmentally if they do not obey orders. During training trainees were commanded as to what to do, how to do it and when. When starting their careers they had to make decisions regarding life and death and were then expected to use their discretion, which they never had the opportunity to use while undergoing training.
- Clearly delineated lines of communication and authority existed. The higher rank had authority over the lower, despite the fact that the lower rank did not work under the direct supervision of the higher rank. Personnel with lower ranks had to communicate with their superiors through senior ranks.
- The communication process was primarily vertical from top to bottom. Commands and orders are given from the top without consulting with the lower ranks. Participative management was nonexistent. There was no information or ideas coming from the lower ranks. Initiatives were inhibited.
- Employees were encouraged to work primarily through threats or coercion. Subordinates had to obey commands or be charged. Training was based on coercion and threats with the effect that individuals were not exceed. Questioning of instructions was not allowed.
- Initiative at the supervisory and operational levels were neither sought nor encouraged nor expected. Because the supervisor was usually of a higher rank, his decisions could never be questioned. It was believed that subordinates could not come up with any good ideas. If subordinates showed any initiatives it was seen as a threat to the supervisor and therefore discarded.
- Emphasis was placed on the maintenance of the status quo. It was supposedly better to do things the way people used to rather than trying new and different ideas. Things had been done in a certain way during the past and it was "correct", so why change it?
- A highly structured system of sanctions and discipline procedures were adhered to deal with nonconformists within the organisation. This was evident especially during training; those who did not conform to the group norm were punished. Individuals were disciplined for petty offences which sometimes resulted in promotions being withheld, for example going on duty with unpolished shoes or hair too long for the liking of a commander.
- Usually a highly centralised system of operations existed. The commander always needed to be in command and controlled all activities. Nobody was allowed to take action without the consent of the commander or superior.

- Strict adherence to guidelines in the form of commands, directives, general orders, or policy and procedure was demanded. This refers to the bureaucratic nature of the police in the past. No discretion was allowed and everything had to be done by the book. In reality however, situations arise where rules are not practical to follow and discretion is needed to make decisions.
- Lack of flexibility existed with commanders when confronted with problems or situations not covered by existing directives, general order, policy and procedure. No exceptions were made towards members and this tended to rub off on the behaviour of personnel during their encounters with the community. The rules were followed rigidly and the use of discretion was not allowed. The compliance with rules was more important than satisfying the customer.
- Promotional opportunities were reserved for members of the organisation only. People from outside the organisation, with few exceptions were not allowed to enter at any level.
- An impersonal relationship existed between members of the organisation. This was the result of the rank structure whereby superiors and subordinates were not allowed to interact socially outside the place of work. This resulted in colleagues not knowing each other to build trust relationship and mutual understanding.
- There were feelings of demoralisation and powerlessness among members at the lower levels of the organisation. The fact that there was always somebody more senior to people with lower ranks resulted in people misusing power when they eventually reached the higher ranks.
- The concept existed that the administration and top command was biased. Top command often made decisions based on superiority of their ranks and not based on their knowledge of actual situations or personal skills. It was taken for granted that people with higher ranks would automatically make the right decision. They made the rules and decided whether or not the conduct of subordinates was in line with the rules.
- A growing level of cynicism among supervisory and operational level personnel developed towards top management. Members of lower ranks complained that “they” make the rules and “we” have to do the job, no matter what.

Policing before the 1994 transition can be described as rules-based. Police behaviour, responsibilities and duties were determined by rules, regulations and hierarchies rather than initiative, discretion and consultation. The manifestations of rules-based policing were a militaristic style, both in dress and attitude towards communities. Police enforced and upheld the laws promulgated by the previous

government. They could not use their discretion; as a result, consulting communities on policing matters was never considered.

The style of policing was largely reactive, or rather incident-driven. This style permitted a lack of transparency in the old South African Police (SAP). As a result, the net effect of rules-based policing was that it lacked credibility among its supposed beneficiaries. Being incident-driven also meant that policing was inefficient, and failed to prevent crime. The end result was an enormous burden being placed on the police as well as the judicial and correctional system (Minstry, 1997: *ibid*). Carstens & Burger (1999:1) point out that the management employed by police agencies in South Africa was characterised by a very militaristic, bureaucratic, authoritarian and non-participatory style. It is evident that the military culture in the police was not unique in South Africa. A view held by Blumberg & Neiderhoffer (1985:124) suggests that the military legacy in the police also applies in America where 'the traditional model of police administration has been military and autocratic'. And they are deeply resistant to changing.

In addition Bryett & Harrison (1993:34) pointed out that when regular civil police forces were formed in the nineteenth century only the military had any kind of science of organisation and management. Niland (1996:1) argues that police drew from army corps or militia for its first recruits and adapted a military model for its uniform, its promotional structure and its culture. Most police forces continue today as semi- military, strictly hierarchical organisations with deeply sexist views about women. Eventually this resulted in the commonality of practices between the military and the police. Stead (1980:307) mentioned some of the following commonalities in the police:

- The wearing of uniforms with the insignia of ranks;
- A vocabulary which includes "headquarters", 'patrol', 'salute', 'operations', 'squad', 'sergeant', 'services', 'division', 'force';
- Codes of discipline;
- Intelligence systems; and
- The legitimacy use in certain circumstances of lethal force.

It is clear that the military legacy has probably been the strength, underpinning the continuance of the police culture in its presently identified form. Additionally, it appears that the legacy of military culture continued to exist and manifested in the biasness against certain social aspects. Evidence of this can be found in rank and structure which shows male dominance. In Reynecke & Fourie (2000:266) the study was conducted in 1998 on gender representation showed that there were no women appointed from the rank of provincial to the national commissioner level. Even those few women appointed from

the ranks of senior superintendent to assistant commissioner were mostly appointed in support (administration) positions.

4.4. Police Officer: A law unto themselves

This is the period between 1960 until the 1990 which was characterised by the use of brutal forms to deal with the opponents of the previous government's repressive laws. In this period particularly in the 1980s there was a massive uprising in the townships, of which Fox et al (1998:167) term it as the era of securocrats. It is stated that the police had unlimited powers regarding the detention and interrogation of suspects. In addition the security branch of the SAP, national intelligence and military intelligence played a major role in dictating the activities of other government organisations.

According to Cawthra (1993:3) the process was aided by the State of Emergency particularly in 1980s, which exonerated police from civil or criminal prosecution for acts of violence and criminality, provided they were carried out 'in good faith'. Evidence suggests that even both the other arms of the state - legislative and judicial - allowed their oversight functions to be undermined. In some instances, these oversight bodies were perceived to actively empower police to use their discretion without subjecting it to review. Shaw (2001:24) states that in only a handful of cases were individual police officers found guilty of abuse and in most cases complainants were poorly treated and their complaints inadequately investigated. In addition, Cawthra (1993:3) also alludes to the fact that as decades of counter-insurgency war progressively undermined the civil rights of South Africans, the SAP largely abandoned the concept of the rule of law. Furthermore police were drawn increasingly to covert operations and became more and more secretive. Examining the amendment of the Police Indemnity (Act 51 of 1977) it further perpetuated the police conduct and unlimited powers as its aim was to restrict the press and civilians from hostile investigation of police actions.

According to Kurian (1989:343) such amendment to the legislation further guaranteed immunity to police for acts committed in the line of duty and designated operational areas. Raunch (2000:2) argues that by the early 1990s, (all) the police in South Africa had acquired a reputation for brutality, corruption and ineptitude. Police organisations were militarised, hierarchical, and ill-equipped to deal with "ordinary" crime.

4.5. The Reform Process in the Police: From SAP to SAPS

During 1991, the SAP embarked on an internal reform initiative - a response both to the changing political environment signalled by the release of Mandela and the unbanning of the liberation movements in 1990. The challenge of reforming highly militarised police agencies, with low levels of

legitimacy and ineffective systems of accountability were manifest as events pushed the then government towards political compromise. According to Rauch (2000:3) the SAP's 1991 strategic plan highlighted the following areas of change:

- focus on pro-active policing;
- improved partnership relations between the community and the South African Police;
- depoliticisation of the force;
- increased community accountability;
- more visibility policing;
- establishment of improved and effective management practices;
- reform of the training system (including some racial integration); and
- restructuring of the police force.

Cawthra (1993:164) argues that while the plan includes a recognition that the SAP was in the process of transformation from a closed system to an open system, it was drawn up without any significant external input in the evaluation and planning process, and has not been publicised. In addition it made vague assertions along the lines of "the future is increasingly complex, unsure and unpredictable" and "the organisational culture makes empowerment possible". The subsequent signing of the National Peace Accord (NPA) by multi-party agreement in 1991 to deal with high level political violence, introduced a range of structures and procedures to prevent and deal with inter-group conflict, many of them focussed on policing. This accord committed the police to a range of actions, include that officers should wear name badges and that the number plates of police vehicles be painted on their side to ensure easy identification. Greater media coverage as well as a growing awareness as to past police abuses ensured that the police were under greater scrutiny.

Negotiations concerning the shape and post-apartheid police transformation took place in 1993 between political representatives as part of the broader process of political transformation underway in the country and formally became law as they were adopted in the Interim Constitution (Act 200 of 1993) which paved the way forward to the restructuring process in policing. It went further by stipulating how the police would be restructured and rationalised into one single agency.

4.6. The Trajectory of Transformation Post 1994

4.6.1. Introduction

The advent of democracy after the April 1994 elections marked a new change in South Africa. The new order created an environment for change which necessitated the need for a fundamental transformation in the organisation and practice of the police work. However, leading up to 1994 elections, in many

areas of South Africa the public attitudes towards, and satisfaction with the police remained low. This negative perception about the police was also recognised by the government that even within the ranks of police some would be resistant to change. As a result the first indication of the new government's efforts to demilitarise the SAP, immediately after 1994 elections the new police agency had its name changed from SA Police force to SA Police Service.

According to Lue (1995:3) the transformation of the South African Police is a complex process and it has been defined as follows: Transformation is the overall process of change, and includes rationalisation and amalgamation. It further includes the transformation of policing styles, approaches, priorities, policies, cultures and attitudes whereby the South African Police Service (SAPS) becomes a community service-orientated police service aligned with values and principles such as transparency, accountability, impartiality and professionalism. It thus entails not only the transformation of the nature of the organisation, but of the very essence of policing. Furthermore, Malan (1997) adds that the transformation of the police had been managed in three distinct but overlapping phases, described as follows:

1. Phase 1: Rationalisation — to ensure effective administration at national and provincial levels of government as prescribed by the Constitution
2. Phase 2: Amalgamation — the physical amalgamation of the various existing policing agencies into one national police service; and
3. Phase 3: Change — the transformation of the SAPS into a "... professional, representative, efficient and effective, impartial, transparent and accountable service ... [which] ... upholds and protects the fundamental rights of all people, and which carries out its mission in consultation and co-operation with the needs of the community.

4.6.2. Amalgamation of the Different Agencies

The process of amalgamation was undertaken as the first step towards transforming the police. This process described above was legislated for in the South African Police Service (Act 68 of 1995), which formalised the rationalisation and amalgamation of the police forces from the former homelands and the SAP into single national SAPS with a single command structure. This process resulted in a shift from a force to a service by means of community policing which aimed at establishing an equal partnership between the police and the community. This implied:

- The rationalisation of staff from all the eleven police agencies that policed in the "old" South Africa, for example, the homelands and other self-governing states.
- The amalgamation of these forces and the old South African Police into one South African Police Service (<http://www.unojust.org/>).

Notwithstanding, the progress undertaken in amalgamating and structuring the police organisation, the SAPS was faced with difficult challenges such as persistent incidents of victimisation, racialisation, and cases of human rights abuse. In terms of South African Police Service Act (68 of 1995), the government formally established a civilian Secretariat for Safety and Security with oversight and monitoring functions and created the Independent Complaints Directorate at national level. Thus, the government generally, and police in particular, would for the first time have someone looking over their shoulder.

4.6.3. Changing Military Symbols to New Order

The Argus of 1 December 1995 reported that the early recognisable swift moves by the new government were the changes in some of the symbols, which were associated with apartheid policing after the 1994 election. As an indication of shifting away from the apartheid and militaristic approach to service rendering, there was a name change from the South African Police Force to South African Police Service (SAPS). The Argus further stated that the following are some of the changes that were introduced in the ranking system as a result of the ongoing transformation process in the SAPS:

- A new police leadership was appointed, with the National Commissioner appointed directly by the President.
- The rank system was changed from the previous military ranks to a rank system based on the British model. For example:
General= became Commissioner
Brigadier= became Director
Colonel = became Senior Superintendent. This change did encounter some resistance from within the police organisation, and to this day, informal use of the old ranks continues in many areas.
- The uniform was changed. In the old dispensation, each of the eleven police forces had its own uniform and insignia. A new uniform was designed for the new SAPS, which was slightly less militaristic.
- A new insignia was created for the SAPS, to replace that of the former police forces. The new badge consists of the image of an aloe (an indigenous South African plant with healing properties) with nine spikes, to symbolise the nine new provinces.
- The colour of police vehicles changed, with all new vehicles being painted white with blue lettering, instead of the bright yellow which had become associated with fire-brigade style police in armoured vehicles.

- In some provinces, the names of police stations were changed, where they had previously been named after apartheid-era politicians or police leaders. The most notable was the "John Vorster Square" police station, where numerous detainees had been tortured and killed by Security Police, which became the "Johannesburg Central" police precinct (Cape Times, 3 August 1995).

According to Shaw (2001:32) there was almost no debate (and even less protest) when the new police agency was called the South African Police Service and a new badge adopted. It was noted that the old badge and name were similar to the new and these symbols of policing seemed to hold little emotional content for the majority of whites. The uniform of the new SAPS however was almost identical to the old SAP uniform with homeland police officers and Public Order or riot police (who had worn camouflage) all adopting the light blue kit (Shaw, 2001:33).

While it is accepted that the changes that were introduced in the SAPS such as change of uniforms and rank structures were attempts to move away from the military culture. However, it can be argued that simply changing uniforms and titles alone was not enough to change the culture that was entrenched over many decades. Also to implement drastic changes without allaying fears would be viewed as threatening police officers careers especially those with long services. It is evident that changing the long-established culture in the SAPS would encounter difficulties and complex challenges as many cases of human rights abuse, incidents of racism and discrimination and corruption among others were reported.

4.7. Evaluation of some policy initiatives implemented in the SAPS

The promulgation of the South African Police Service (Act 68 of 1995) required the formation of community policing forums at all police stations. Given the recurring crime problem in South Africa, it appears that part of the problem is the lack of coherency and clearly articulated vision of higher managers responsible for formulating policies. The results of bureaucracy and fragmentation impact negatively on the operational level where these policy initiatives have to be implemented with lack of clear knowledge and effective coordination. Among the policy weaknesses that will be briefly examined here are: community policing and community police forum, National Crime Prevention Strategy, community safety forums to mention a few.

4.7.1. Community policing

Community policing was set out in the interim constitution and the South African Police Services Act as framework for the restructuring of the police force. Subsequently, in April 1997, the Department of

Safety and Security published its formal policy on community policing — the Community Policing Policy Framework and Guidelines. Community policing was defined in terms of a collaborative, partnership-based approach to local level problem-solving (Ministry, 1997: *ibid*). Looking at the policy document, its articulation was driven towards the transformation of the SAPS into an effective organisation, accountable at various levels and responsive to the needs of those it served. An analysis of the policy suggests that the following factors should have been considered in conjunction with the SAPS organisation's structure before implementation: alignment of goals and objectives, internal social structure, and external environment.

When observing the policy goals it appears as if an assessment of the internal structure and capacity was overlooked. A concern raised by some police officers suggest that proper consultation was not broadly carried out to consider the input of lower rank structures particularly at the station level where the issue of policing crime matters most. Evidence suggests that community was narrowly defined in terms of the few interest groups to include non governmental organisations, trade unions, church groups, business groups and perhaps individuals who enjoy high standing in the community. For instance past historical factors which resulted in deep suspicions and mistrust between the police and community, this makes community partnership not to be effective particularly in most black areas. According to Pelser (1999:12) it is argued that Community Policing Policy Framework and Guidelines were distributed to all police training institutions and stations. However, the researcher feels little effort was put to link both the new policing philosophy especially at operational level with the envisaged culture. Not only was community policing viewed by many officers as taking away their powers but also lowering the policing standard. Adding to the problem was that the politicians and top management who imposed the framework expected the mostly affected lower rank police officers to be versatile.

Another weakness was the reliance on formal police training alone, which also tended to be instruction based. Critically, the traditional training offered to the police is more specialised and inward-looking in performing their tasks and less focused in honing the behaviour aspects dealing with the wide policing spectrum. In the end, it should be mentioned that training programmes need not focus solely on intervention but must aimed at imparting knowledge and creating a sustainable learning process where the individual becomes knowledgeable about the broad spectrum of policing.

4.7.2. Community Police Forums

Section 221 (1) and (2) of the Interim Constitution, Act 200 of 1993 directed that an Act of Parliament was to provide for the establishment of community police forums in respect of police stations. Firstly, the

introduction of Community Police Forum (CPF) was a defining feature in the transformation process of the SAPS as it aimed at broadening police function to work in close partnership with community. Secondly, the CPF was seen as an important venture to achieve the objective of community policing as this entailed the establishment of an active partnership between the police and the community through which crime, service delivery and police-community relations can jointly be analysed and appropriate solutions designed and implemented. Yet, notwithstanding these positive contributions, the researcher's view is that the government appeared to have inadvertently introduced the idea of Community Policing Forum.

However, CPFs have enabled the police to establish relationships only with particular sections of local communities. While this is not in itself a bad thing, it emerged from the researcher's observation when conducting interviews in some police stations, that CPFs were seen by the police as providing justification for believing that they are taking community concerns into account when in fact CPF members have merely become part of a police "inner circle". It was also observed that community policing appears to have concentrated too heavily on the creation of CPF structures and gaining legitimacy for the SAPS, rather than improving the outcomes of policing in terms of better detection and crime reduction. The concept of CPFs role is not to give control and direction to the police but rather to provide the community link in the chain of police accountability. Moreover it does seem that neither community associations nor the SAPS seem to have grasped the fact that there is more to community policing than establishing community forums. Confronted with the occurrence of community policing problems, it is no surprise that some black people in poor areas would prefer to see direct intervention by national government. It is also no surprise that as people begin to grapple with crime increase and the police seem to be failing to the battle against crime, some community groups have resorted in vigilante style in order to solve crime problems.

Bruce (1998:12) states that although the CPFs were envisaged to be broadly representative of the local community, what has tended to be the case instead is that certain powerful and more vocal interest groups have used the CPFs to make themselves heard. Alternatively there has been no formal community representation at all with CPFs being constituted by a band of hardy volunteers. Another CPFs weakness is its limited focus on establishing relations between the police officers and community in isolation of linking other strategies to tackle crime.

4.7.3. The National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS)

Pelser (2001:ibid) argues that it was only after the government realised that crime was a rather a multi-dimensional social issue instead of a one-social dimension that the cabinet adopted "The National Crime Prevention Strategy" (NCPS). This was also a response to the pressure of the public who felt government lacked an effective strategy to tackle crime and demanded tougher action against criminals. In May 1996, the Cabinet adopted the NCPS which was intended to address the lack of co-ordination and inter-departmental linkages in the fight against crime through a "comprehensive multi-agency approach to crime prevention". For instance the NCPS, as it has evolved, has the following components:

- Co-ordination and integration of criminal justice functions. This includes funding and joint decision-making in criminal justice departments. The flagship initiative here is the Integrated Justice System project which will fundamentally affect the SAPS and other agencies, changing the way that information pertaining to criminal cases is managed and processed.
- Co-ordination and leadership to address high priority crime areas involving several departments and other actors. Because the co-ordination of anti-crime efforts is weak, NCPS structures have increasingly taken on this role. Several successes are being achieved, notably in border control and combating vehicle theft.
- Research, advocacy and facilitation of crime prevention programmes. This area is in its embryonic stage, due primarily to a lack of dedicated capacity and resources.

Looking at the above aims of the NCPS, the strategy was intended to draw together key role players in government in an attempt to provide the basis for the restructuring of the criminal justice system and more effective crime prevention programmes. The strategy seems to be very complex and holistic in nature, and perhaps it was its greatest potential weakness because this required the availability of a very strong co-ordination and leadership.

It should be noted that the issue of policing is not limited to crime and security issues but cuts across health and education, and hence the exclusion of these departments from the justice cluster units which comprises the SAPS, Justice and Constitutional Development, Correctional services does not bear success. It was not the premise of this study project to deliberate about the best intervention strategy in changing culture. Admittedly, when looking close in all these three policy initiatives that is community policing philosophy, CPF, and NCPS seem to be more relevant in countries which already advance in democracy. In order for these policy initiatives to successful, more work ought to have been put to changing the culture so that the new philosophy be in line with the newly established values in the police.

4.7.4. Service Delivery Improvement Programme (SDIP)

According to Sekhonyane & Louw (2002:52-3) the SAPS has taken a leading role in this regard as demonstrated by its Service Delivery Improvement Programme (SDIP). The project was initiated by the SAPS in 1998 and is intended to provide a management tool to improve the quality of service to the public and the functioning of the police. The SDIP originates from the Department of Public Service Administration's White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (Batho Pele) and the subsequent Public Service Regulations of 1999. The latter came into operation in July 1999 and compel all government services to establish and sustain service delivery programmes:

- Specifying the main services to be provided to the different types of actual and potential customers, as identified by the department;
- Containing consultation arrangements with the department's customers;
- With due regard to the customers' means of access to the service and the barriers to the increased access thereof, specifying the mechanisms or strategies to be utilised progressively to remove the barriers so that access is increased;
- Indicating standards for the main services to be provided;
- Containing arrangements as to information about the department's services; and
- Stipulate a system or mechanism for complaints.

In practice this means that the role of police agency is more than just responding to crime incidents, crime prevention, combating crime and investigation of crime, their visibility in the community entails that they must be part in solving problems in the community and contributes to the improvement of the quality of life. Ultimately, the success of the SDIP will depend on the police members' ability to demonstrate their knowledge and skills to be able to determine, interpret and appropriately apply the programme in accordance with the Constitutional requirements.

4.7.5. Performance Management

Introduction

The 1996 Constitution of the Republic of South Africa outlines the core functions of the SAPS where it places crime prevention above the list of the four objectives namely, to prevent crime, combat and investigate crime, to maintain public order, to protect and secure the inhabitants of the Republic and their property, and to uphold and enforce the law. Accordingly, the SAPS as an agency that provide community service has a responsibility that both the organisation and individual employees make sure that their work performance and standards are aimed to achieve the above objectives in manner that is of quality, effective and efficient.

Reynecke & Fourie (2000:111) describe performance management as a process through which the work plans, objectives and the results of an organisation, groups and individuals are constantly monitored to ensure that the minimum desired outcome is attained. One of the outcomes of performance management process is the performance measurement system which helps to collect the information about the quality, efficiency, cost and timeliness of the work activity. However, based on the survey questionnaire that was distributed at some police stations and of which the results are discussed in Chapter 5, it appears that the performance management system used in the police focuses more on promotion and remuneration package which are based on seniority, rank structure rather than rewarding excellent work and high performance.

In addition, the researcher examined work conducted on performance management at SAPS national level by Institute of Security Studies in 2002 and later looked at the Human Resource Management Strategic Framework for the Western Cape Province SAPS (2002/2005). A number of weaknesses were identified, which include a failure to recognise that performance management can be an effective tool to identify training and development programmes, used together with other methods to help align the individuals' attitudes and behaviour along the overall culture and values of the organisation, and to encourage and reward for continuous learning, mentoring, to mention but a few. In order to measure the SAPS performance, there is a need to identify some key performance indicators which can benchmark its success. In the context of police stations, the police function requires the support of management, administrators and other specialists. According to Leggett (2003:4) police service are traditionally divided into two core functional areas of operational activity usually, the uniformed and investigations functions. The patrol function is multifaceted which includes among others, responding to calls for assistance; determining whether a crime has occurred and if an arrest is possible; generating accurate public records. The above function also patrols the streets to detect crime problems and to promote police visibility in order to deter crime problems. They also deal with traffic problems and accidents, and maintain order at public gatherings.

In contrast, the primary task of the investigative function which is referred to as the detective service, is to investigate reported cases to determine whether an arrest is possible and, if so, to prepare the case for trial; they must also locate and liaise with victims and witnesses; they secure and document physical evidence; brief the prosecution and provide testimony in court. Given the above brief highlight on police functions, the following indicators can be used both internal and externally as a feedback in order to ascertain whether they are succeeding and are still responsive to the needs of the society:

Detective performance

Essentially, the level of workload that the approximately 20000 detectives face country-wide can substantially impact their ability to perform (Redpath, 2002:5). What is more critical in the work of the detectives is that some crime types demand significantly more detective attention. One of the criteria to measure performance is to consider the number of cases presented to court per detective for prosecution.

Uniformed performance

Unlike detectives, the duties of the uniformed branch are varied and a range of indicators could be adopted such as:

- **Response rate.** One of the primary things that the public expects from the police is personal attention in a reasonable period of time in the case of emergency. As such, response time comprises one of the most important indicators of police performance. Therefore targets for response time can be set and constantly monitored. It is important to set reasonable goals for improvement and to work on strategies to enhance timely response to citizen requests.
- **Arrests and seizures.** The SAPS is charged with the reduction of crime levels, in addition to providing effective law enforcement. While seizing large amount of imported drugs can be a positive indicator, it can also indicate poor border control. Equally, emphasising on the number of arrests can be misleading because some cases may not provide a basis for sound conviction. It often happens that some cases need to be resolved through mediation between the parties concerned.

It should be noted that arrests and seizures cannot stand on their own as a performance measure, but need to be contextualised with other indicators. Ultimately, the goals should be for these totals to reduce, that is fewer drugs, guns, and other forms of contraband in the society.

- **Detailed analysis of productivity per staff member** which include, personnel-hours per operation, to provide a cost/benefit type analysis.
- **Public satisfaction.** Public satisfaction is one of the outcome indicators in a democracy. It is for this reason that research should always be conducted through independent surveys of public opinion with the objective of improving service delivery. Information collected from a survey is particularly useful and for carefully defined areas such as station areas, so that innovative measures can be tested. Surely, given the fact that police stations are the interface where the frontline officers interact with the public to lodge their complaints, they must keep in mind that public opinion is dynamic, that public perception to policies must be continually

revaluated, and regular polls must be conducted to measure the real impact of other indicators.

- **Use of force and complaints.** Tracking numbers of complaints and their outcomes provide some insight into trends in misbehaviour, but as with reported crime, these figures may increase as a result of good police work. For instance, the more public feels confident that complaints will be treated with respect and will result in positive outcomes, the greater the chances of an incident being reported (Leggett, 2003:6).

Performance management process

The goal of performance management must be to link the individual performance to the organisation's mission and the department or unit must aim to achieve a work place of high-performing individuals and groups who take responsibility for their work. In addition, performance should be regarded as a continuous process that includes setting expectations, providing ongoing feedback, holding managers and staff accountable, and developing professional skills and abilities at all levels. The programme should describe a way of managing staff that is intended to create an environment at the station that values and encourages ongoing innovation, improvement, and enhancement of the work performance of each individual. In summary, the SAPS Performance Enhancement Program should entail, among others, the following:

- Establish accountability for managing financial, technical, human, and physical resources well, which is to be reflected in each manager's job description, performance appraisal, and pay.
- Emphasises dialogue with employees, throughout the year, that gives ongoing feedback and guides them in how to use their strengths and correct their weaknesses.
- Requires an annual performance evaluation as a one-on-one discussion, recorded in writing, which reviews the year's performance and sets goals for the next year.
- Stresses collaboration and teamwork where appropriate.
- Expects ongoing professional development as a performance standard for all.
- Identifies the "customer" for each task and focuses on their needs by gathering data and feedback.

Management expectations: Described below are the management's expectations that can be adapted in the SAPS's police stations. Implemented within a range of management styles, these expectations can aim to establish a culture where innovation and change can flourish.

- **Leadership at all Management Levels:** Articulate effectively the mission of the organisation and the department or unit; define goals, standards, and values for all staff members; optimize

quality, efficiency, and productivity of the department or office and the organisation; delegate authority where appropriate, with necessary resources; create a positive working environment; coach, counsel, and mentor to develop skills and improve performance; share the organisation and department or unit information regularly with staff at all levels; and address problems directly and promptly.

- **Responsibility:** Comply with employment law and all other relevant laws, and administer organisational policies fairly; manage in a fiscally responsible manner; make optimal use of available technology, and encourage staff to do so as well; and cultivate positive attitudes and goodwill among the agency's employees and in the larger community.
- **Improvement and Innovation:** Initiate and embrace change; improve processes continually, encourage employees to suggest better ways to do work, adjust office structure and job descriptions to fit changing needs.
- **Collaboration and Teamwork:** Work across boundaries; collaborate with others; make effective use of teams; treat others with respect and dignity; Encourage staff participation.
- **Dialogue:** Provide frank, honest, and open evaluation of performance; give ongoing, constructive feedback; ask for and listen to feedback about own performance and performance of the office; deal with performance problems quickly; formally assess and discuss yearly performance and develop strategies for improvement.
- **Development and Growth:** Learn new skills and encourage employees to do so as well; provide training opportunities for everyone; encourage professional development inside and outside the office.
- **Recognition and Rewards:** Provide rewards and recognition for excellence; conscientiously apply pay-for-performance policy, foster pride in performance, and celebrate success – often.

Implementation

The organisation's Performance Management Process should include the following components:

- **Training:** Each manager should attend regular performance management training each year. Other training should be made available to managers and staff to provide performance enhancement skills and abilities.
- **Performance Appraisal Discussions:** In an environment where ongoing feedback is the norm, a performance appraisal discussion should contain no surprises for either the employee or the supervisor. The discussion should be one where the two individuals discuss the employee's performance, and together plan next goals. The organisation should require a performance appraisal discussion between each employee and direct supervisor at least once

annually. It can be at any time during the year and may be recorded in whatever format is appropriate for the department or unit. Human Resources Department is the ideal to help individual departments develop forms and formats if requested.

The written report of the discussion should be shared with and countersigned by the employee and should minimally include strengths, areas where improvement is needed, and plans (including development) or objectives for the ensuing year.

The written record should to be retained only in the office for safety. The department or office heads are responsible for ensuring that each employee has had an annual appraisal, and will be required to confirm in writing that this has been done at the time salary increase recommendations are submitted.

- **Compensation Program:** An important tool for managers is a compensation system that supports their efforts to reward excellent performance and to improve managerial or unsatisfactory performance. The organisation's compensation program should be designed to provide managers with the ability to reward quality performance and to reinforce efforts to improve and change behaviour or work practices where necessary.

Reynecke & Fourie (2000:114) suggest the following issues need to be considered when selecting performance measures namely:

- Relate them to goals and the mission of the organisation;
- Select only a few measures or instruments;
- Make the measuring tools comprehensive;
- Set achievable but demanding targets;
- Ensure that the targets set will influence the behaviour of the total workforce;
- Ensure that the measurement tool is accurate and relevant to the specific performance; and
- Determine the performance targets for different levels within the organisation.

It is important that management should commit individual employees to quality, efficiency and effective service delivery. For this to happen the SAPS needs to introduce a system to measure performance that is simple and clear, and not to use it as tool to punish negative behaviour such as underperforming without first exploring all other efforts and assistance to bring the individual's performance to an acceptable level.

4.8. Critical Overview of the Ideal Structure of SAPS

Redpath (2002:4) sets out his analysis about bureaucracy in the national structure of the SAPS which inhibits creativity and innovation. It first states that according to the official figures as at November 2002, the SAPS is a national organisation made up of approximately 128 000 police members and 20 503 civilians. These are distributed across four levels: 1,103 police stations which are grouped into 43 areas, located within the nine provinces. Substantial portions of the total SAPS members are situated in the head office in Pretoria or have head office-related functions. According to Redpath (2002:4), the National Commissioner is appointed by the President, assisted by the three deputy national commissioner. Under this structure there are eleven divisional commissioners responsible for various functions within the SAPS, including the detective service. The National Commissioner oversees and ensures the strategic implementation of the departmental policies as well as providing information link between the national, provincial and lower levels.

The divisional commissioners are those of national evaluation, crime prevention, operational response service, crime intelligence, detective service, logistics, financial and administrative services, training, personnel services, career management and legal services. Each of these divisions has their own lines of reporting (Annexure C). Layered alongside these divisional commissioners, are the nine provincial commissioners, who are responsible for operations within their respective *geographic areas*. This implies that at any one time, a detective must ultimately report both to the divisional commissioner of the detective service and the provincial commissioner of the province in which he or she is based.

Another consequence of this structure is that when a detective based in one province wishes to pursue his or her investigations in another province, permission must first be obtained from the provincial commissioner of the province concerned, detailing why the province is being entered and what work will be carried out by the detective. A detective may not simply enter the province and pursue leads without first carrying out this formality. Conversely, any police member within a province wishing to make use of the detective service must obtain permission through the ranks in the detective service. Furthermore the detective service functions at national level, at provincial, at area level, and at station level. Only at local or station levels are the activities of the detective service limited to classic detective responsibilities, that is:

- Attending crime scenes;
- The gathering or collection of evidence;
- The tracking of suspects;
- Use of investigative techniques;

- Searching premises;
- The execution of warrants in respect of detective cases;
- The serving of summonses and subpoenas; and
- Preparation and processing of court cases (Redpath, 2002:5).

It should be noted that the setting of national standards and policy, evaluation and monitoring, maintaining structures necessary for effective national crime prevention, Forensic Laboratory and Criminal Record Centre, representation on the National Intelligence Co-ordinating Committee, *inter alia*, are the responsibility of the national level. At provincial level, provincial standards and policies are determined, monitoring of training, and command of specialised units, among others, occurs. At area level, much of the functions revolve around the gathering of crime intelligence, crime prevention and community services. SAPS Crime Prevention division is regarded as a line function division of the SAPS specifically responsible for the prevention of crime.

Although there are Crime Prevention components at area and provincial levels reporting operationally to the area commissioner and provincial commissioners respectively, such components function in accordance with national policies and guidelines issued by this division. The division has a national capacity for handling national Crime Prevention matters. The division is accountable to the Deputy National Commissioner: Operations. Taking for instance, the detective service because of the bureaucratic nature of the SAPS structure it is often mentioned this is a factor, which impedes the work of conscientious detectives (Redpath, 2002:4). When the detectives flout the rules regarding obtaining permission through the ranks, they do so at their peril, even when they have a successful investigation to show for it.

An example is also made of a former superintendent who described a highly urgent operation, which required the use of a helicopter. When she was unable to obtain the relevant permission for its use in time, she nevertheless carried out the operation, which was successful. But she was subsequently disciplined as a result. The above is illustrations of how most of the bureaucratic controls are put in place in the SAPS to ensure effective monetary management and combat corruption in an organisation of substantial size. Van Rooyen (1995:2) adds that bureaucracy was originally created as an ideal organisational approach - a rational organisational model primarily established to realise the delegated objective, namely maintenance of order by means of a rule-and-routine system in the most effective manner. It is further stated that bureaucratic police organisations emphasise a central control structure, downward one-way communication in the form of orders, inflexible inferior/supervisor relations on the

grounds of rank prerogative, impersonality, and a focus on reactionary operations (Van Rooyen 1995:2). Clearly, the SAPS structure is a creation of parallel components with every level having its powers as the hierarchy go up and operating with little interaction and coordination. The structural form of the SAPS takes the structure of a machine bureaucracy, which combines standardisation with centralisation and formal control. Like a typical bureaucratic structure the SAPS is characterised by high specialisation, extensive departmentalisation, narrow spans of control, high formalisation, a limited information network (mostly downward communication), and little participation by low-level members in decision making. Such structure is high in complexity, and there are lots of rules and regulations however, the formalisation is internalised rather than imposed by the organisation itself (Robbins, 2000:246). Police organisational structure has strict adherence to the unity-of command principle. This ensures the existence of a formal hierarchy of authority, with each person controlled and supervised by one supervisor. Narrow spans of control, especially at increasingly higher levels in the organisation create tall, impersonal structure.

The weakness of the structural form of the SAPS is that there is the tendency for sub-unit conflicts to develop over scarce resources. In these hierarchical levels it is often found that a lot of duplication and too many managers exist more than the managed. Few powers are seldom decentralised to the station level where they are needed most for operational purposes and to achieve goals. Annexure C is a typical example of machine bureaucracy. The fragmentation and lack of coordination of the various units is evident at local police stations where departments such as crime intelligence.

4.9. Environment of Policing in Service Delivery

Policing does not take place in vacuum. The context is a critical factor that must be understood to recognise its influence on police organisation. Police managers have the responsibility of monitoring the environment and planning effectively in response to circumstances so that the organisation can adapt to change. The environment in which police are functioning can be conceptualised using general and specific environments. Specific environment is that part of environment that is directly relevant to the organisation in achieving its goals, (Robbins, 1990:206). According to Schwella, Burger & Muller (1999:14), the environment divides further into the components of its general environment namely, the political, social, cultural and technological environment. It also separates into its specific environmental components, namely regulators, suppliers, consumers and competitors. The concept environment includes surroundings, neighbourhood, vicinity and precincts (Du Toit & Van der Waldt, 1997:112).

4.9.1. General Environment

General environment encompasses conditions that may have an impact on the organisation, but their relevance is not overtly clear. The factors under general environment are now discussed in brief namely:

4.9.1.1. Political factors

The political system has a major impact on organisations within a society. This is precisely because political parties base their policies on political ideas, philosophy and ideologies (Fox, Van Wyk & Fourie, 1998:86). The political component of the macro-environment affects almost every facet of the police organisation's activities, since these are influenced, directly or indirectly, by factors such as the system of government. The political factors also relate to the policies of the government of the day. The government can even manipulate this environment to suit its own purposes. The police functions in a particular political environment are influenced by various phenomena from that environment. For example, during the previous apartheid system, segregation and racial laws would be introduced and the police agencies were expected to be instrumental in enforcing those laws without partiality.

4.9.1.2. Social factors

The SAPS functions under political direction to provide services to public. Equally, the needs and aspirations of the community should guide their policing system. Obviously, police officials have to take into account social responsibility and consider societal values such as social equity, equality, justice and empathy, etc. The norms and standards of public administration form part of the cultural and historical background of any society (Van der Waldt & Du Toit, 1996:112). For instance the conduct of the police officials are usually determined by the values of the society that are embodied by the legislation drafted by political officials.

4.9.1.3. Cultural factors

Fox et al, (1998:87) point out that cultural system of a society is a... "system through which a society transfers and perpetuates its basic belief systems, as well as religious and educational institutions, including the family". The cultural norms and values held by a given society or segments of it are important when their preferences and needs are to be assessed. This means that police officers must be sensitive to cultural values in their daily dealings with communities. The strong culture in police organisations influence the newly-joined members to learn and subscribe to these established value systems. As police sometimes work in dangerous situations and irregular long hours away from the families, they develop trust among colleagues.

4.9.1.4. Economic factors

After 1994 the policing function has significantly changed from being law enforcers to community services. For this reason police are expected to be part of the problem-solving in communities and securing a safe environment. The willingness of the police to work with communities to implement institutional reform, and service delivery in support of economic development, all impact significantly on the work of the police. In recent years, initiatives to strengthen partnership between community and the police as well as the involvement of business sector in contributing financial resources to fight against crime have increased tremendously. Such initiatives are aimed at ensuring that the country becomes a safety and secure environment to stimulate business enterprises and job creations.

4.9.1.5. Technological factors

According to Fox et al, (1998:87) the technological element of the environment concerns a society's utilisation of machinery and processes to produce and distribute goods and services. One of the greatest challenges facing the police is the application of technological aids. The role of technology is important in the SAPS, especially when it comes to cases of dockets missing in some police stations without computer backup being saved. The use of technological aids can make the work easier and would include electronic equipment such as computers and fax machines. Gore (1993:114) pointed out the importance of electronic governance as follows:

In the future, the concept of electronic government can go beyond transferring money and other benefits by using plastic, 'smart' benefit cards. With a computer chip in the card, participants could receive public assistance benefits, enrol in training programs, receive veterans' services, or pay for day care. The card would contain information about participants' financial positions and would separately track their benefit accounts- thus minimising fraud. Electronic government will be fairer, more secure, more responsive to the customer, and more efficient than our present paper based systems.

What the report indicates is that in the light of changes brought about by the global technology where it is easy to access information, the consumers are no longer passive in their demand for faster, efficient delivery of services from the government. This prompts the public sector to implement these changes drastically failing which today's consumers have a choice to go to the private sector which will be more willing to render such services better.

4.9.1.6. Legal factors

The nature of the legal element includes factors such as the constitutional system, the nature of the legal system and legislation determining the form and control of government institutions (Van der Waldt

& Du Toit 1997:117). It would be impossible for this study to discuss all the laws that relate to policing function of the SAPS, however, the following are among the major laws that have a great impact on the SAPS, namely, the Interim Constitution Act (200 of 1993) and its successor, the 'final' Constitution Act (108 of 1996), which put an end to police arbitrary action by committing the SAPS to respect human rights; South African Police Service Act (68 of 1995), further deals in detail with the restructuring of the police and the concept of community policing. The Public Service Regulations of 1999, as amended January 2001 deal with the restructuring process for service delivery and labour matters.

4.9.2. Specific Environment

The specific component of the environment is that part of the environment that is directly relevant to the organisation in achieving its goals (Robbins 1990:206). According to Fox et al (1998:88) the specific environment is that part of the environment with which management will be concerned because it is made up of those critical constituencies that may positively and negatively influence the effectiveness of the organisation. It typically comprises clients/customers/citizens, government regulatory agencies, suppliers of inputs, labour unions, trade associations and public pressure groups.

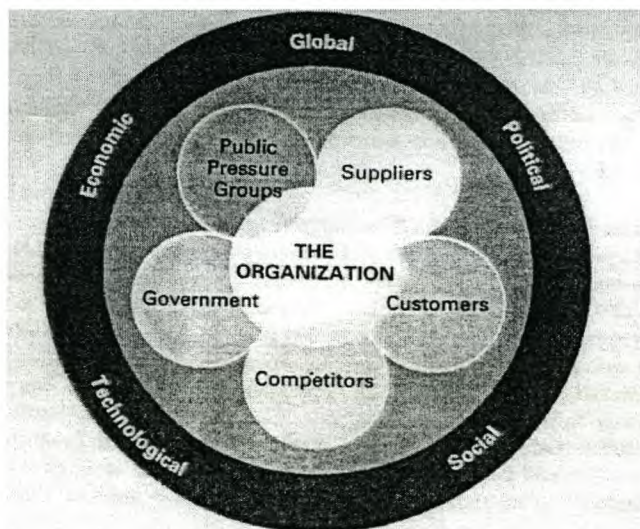


Figure 6 Source: Robbins et al (1990:206) The Organisation and its Environment

4.10. Challenges facing the SAPS in service delivery

This section provides an overview of the general perceptions of crime and policing using the recent research studies conducted in order to analyse public confidence in the police and police effectiveness in crime prevention. Pelser, Schenettler & Louw (2002:24) state that community policing was explicitly expressed as a methodology for improving the service delivery by the police. Central to community policing philosophy are the five core elements, which were defined as:

- Service orientation: the provision of a professional policing service, responsive to community needs and accountable for addressing these needs;
- Partnership: the facilitation of a co-operative, consultative process of problem solving;
- Problem solving: the joint identification and analysis of the causes of crime and conflict and the development of innovative measures to address these;
- Empowerment: the creation of joint responsibility and capacity for addressing crime; and
- Accountability: the creation of a culture of accountability for addressing the needs and concerns of communities.

Police stations as centres of service delivery

Police stations are the primary centres through which the community interact with the police. They act as a critical link between the citizens and government. In practice the frontline officials at police stations act as interface through which the public get a first hand experience about the police services. Effectively this means that police stations should be responsive to the needs of the public, and must ensure that the provision of services meets the economic and social challenges that face the community.

With reference to efficiency, this demands that the work of police is conducted in a manner that is timely and cost-effectively, and that they interact with the public in a co-operative manner. Police officers at the station should conduct themselves in a professional way, be supportive and always prompt. Consequently, the SAPS needs trained personnel who are able to meet the standards required of police officers in a criminal justice system. Due to the historical background of the country some communities have to travel miles to get access to police services. Where police stations do not exist, the provision of satellite or mobile police station can be considered.

Institutional capacity

This refers to the question of whether the police are able to engage in innovative practices required to empower communities. This is in line with the need for the police service to render community policing as prescribed in the Interim Constitution of 1993. Community policing is currently not functioning smoothly due to capacity constraints that face the police organisation. These include:

- The fact that personnel of the SAPS is still largely under-trained and under-skilled-about 25% of the 128 000 members of the SAPS remain functionally illiterate in 1999

- The hierarchical organisation of personnel inhibits individual innovation. Most managers see themselves in terms of their ranks and this affects the way in which they react to subordinates.
- The continuing lack of a coherent and integrated training, deployment, development and succession strategy geared towards enhancing local service delivery means that there are no systemic incentives for rewarding innovative and effective practice at local level. (Pelser 1999:25).

Partnership with community

Problem-oriented policing consists mainly of an interaction between police officers allocated to specific patrol areas and people living or working in these areas. Van Rooyen (1995:59) points out that through interaction, ways are found to identify problems and find viable solutions. Information collected by police officers can strengthen their abilities in problem-solving. Community inputs also offer a different perspective to community interests and problems to that of the police. Secondly, a better working relationship between the police and community develops when there is mutual understanding and knowledge of each other.

Problem-oriented policing recognises that, regardless of the circumstances that led to a positive or negative contact with a member of the community, it is the conduct of the police officer that is often remembered (Van Rooyen, 1995:61). Partnership between police and communities recognises that there is strength in collective action. This leads to the improvement in communication between police and community, as the public will have the opportunity to convey their views on the existing services and to suggest on what improvements could be made. Effective community-police partnerships can reduce the likelihood that people will resort to vigilantism and provide an avenue for constructive and legal participation in crime fighting efforts.

Public perception of crime in the priority areas

According to Pelsner, Schnetler & Louw (2002:47-52) a study was sought to gather the public perceptions of crime and policing in the priority areas to assist an analysis of public confidence in the police. More than one in three of the respondents to the community survey (5 098 respondents or 37% of the sample population) indicated that they, or a member of their household, had been a victim of crime in the 20 months from January 1999 to September 2000 (Table 4). The discrepancy between the number of respondents indicating they had been a victim of crime, and the number of crimes they said

they had been a victim of, suggests that some of the respondents had been a victim of more than once crime.

Table 4: Victimisation in the priority areas		
Type of crime	N	%
Home burglary	1974	27.1
Robbery	1415	19.5
Assault	1282	17.6
Vehicle theft	754	10.4
Sexual assault	438	6.0
Other theft	398	5.5
Hijacking	377	5.2
Murder	288	4.0
Stock theft	225	3.0
Child abuse	120	1.7
Total	7271	100.0

Table 4. Public perceptions of crimes and victimisation in priority areas by Pelser, E, Schnettler, J & Louw, A. 2002. Institute for Security Studies Monograph No 71, March.

Respondents believed that crime in their areas of residence had become worse, or that changes in policing policy had had little significant impact. What this perception indicates is that it affects members of the public regarding the quality of policing in their areas of residence, as well as their confidence in the police service.

Public perception of policing in residential areas

46% of the respondents indicated that they believed the quality of policing in their areas of residence had not changed over the past four years, 30% believed it had become worse and 22%, or one in every five respondents, believed policing had improved. The most common reasons provided by the respondents indicated that they lacked confidence in the police were that they believed:

- The police were unhelpful, unmotivated and did not provide good service (28%);
- The police were corrupt (23%);
- Police were slow to respond (23%);
- There was a lack of follow-up and investigation (6%); and
- There was a lack of police visibility (2%).

Clearly the challenges facing police officers in policing is a complex task which is more than law enforcement. It requires a mix of innovative social crime prevention initiatives. More importantly

institutional capacity of the police is a critical area if they are to win crime and restore law and order. Community partnership is important in order to gain confidence from the public.

4.11. Conclusion

This chapter outlined an overview about the historical background of the SA Police from the perspective of para-military force which was inherited from its past legacy. The transformation process with the aim of changing the police service was discussed. The environment in which policing function takes place is important to understand. Central to the discussion on the police culture are the common fixtures such as police bureaucracy secrecy and corruption which characterise the image of the police organisation. In the discussion its been mentioned how police bureaucracy and high level of centralisation tend to inhibit innovation as the local level lacks decision making. In the context of police service it is clear that culture is an embedded value created through social interaction. In other words it something that is socially produced and evolve over time and once it is fully entrenched it can be difficult to change. Lastly, this chapter concludes the literature review on the study project. The next chapter will analyse the police culture by conducting a research study on the selected police stations. After findings are analysed, the conclusion will be drawn.

CHAPTER 5: DATA COLLECTION ON POLICE CULTURE AND SERVICE DELIVERY.

5.1. Introduction

The research methodology that has been followed in this study project was described in detail in Chapter 1. This chapter deals with the methodology of the study and discusses the data collection techniques and analysis in order that the results can be integrated into the literature before conclusions can be made.

Due to factors such as cost, time constraints and the anticipation of low response rates, a sample pilot study was conducted in the two police stations- Mitchell's Plain and Khayelitsha. According to Locke, Spirduso & Silverman (2000:75) the pilot study and a few decisions allow the researchers to estimate the sample size needed to find significance, if in fact it exists in the data. The method of data collection used in the study is a pilot study because the research questionnaires were only distributed to junior police officers covering all components at both stations in order to ascertain their perceptions and experience about culture in working in big organisations like SAPS and the response to service delivery.

Objectively, the benefit of the pilot study provides the opportunity to observe the main features and behavioural attributes which may help to identify the issues in the event that a follow up study is considered. However, as it is suggested, due to its limitation this study cannot be entirely relied upon, and therefore needs to be followed up by a full comprehensive study that will include the broader population. The following methods of empirical data collection were used in this research:

- Literature study regarding the overview of organisational culture, service delivery, and history of the SAPS has been discussed in the relevant chapters;
- Documentary sources of the SAPS appear in the list of appendices;
- Unstructured interviews were conducted with the Station Commissioners of Mitchell's Plain and Khayelitsha Police Stations;
- Pilot study was conducted at Mitchell's Plain and Khayelitsha Police Stations respectively and will be discussed in detail hereunder; and
- Observations were also made at stations during normal activities. The researcher also had access to the Victims and Trauma Units in the stations in order to ascertain whether the victims do get professional help.

5.2. Interview Discussion

The type of the interview questions that were used with the two Station Commissioners were unstructured and open-ended so that respondents could formulate their own responses.

5.2.1. Interview with the Station Commissioner in Mitchell's Plain Police Station

According to Director Burger, Station Commissioner at Mitchell's Plain Police Station, the station is composed of 146 police personnel inclusive of non-uniform members. Under the station commissioner, there are various components headed by the respective managers who perform at the station management level: Crime Prevention, Community Services Centre with Court Duties, Crime and Intelligence, Detective Services, Intelligence, Human Resources Management, Communication, Logistics, Finances and Administration.

The station is servicing a population estimated in the region of 380 880 based on the last Census statistics figures of 1996. Due to unemployment, crime is rampant in Mitchell's Plain. According to the Station Commissioner at Mitchell's Plain, there is a wide gap between the personnel and community area they serve, and lack of resources on the other hand. In addition Mitchell's Plain is one of the epicentres of the gang wars and home to an estimated 20,000 gangsters - during any given shift, only 15 officers patrol such a big and dangerous area. To stretch their station's resources, the police have begun implementing a number of community-oriented programs. They have established a well-organized neighbourhood watch system and initiated contact with anti-gang community groups and churches - attempting to broker peace between gangs, helping those people who want to leave gangs, and keeping younger children from joining them.

In his views about service delivery, he stated that, notwithstanding the lack of insufficient personnel, financial and other resources in the station, they are improving in delivering services. He mentioned the formation of the neighbourhood watch that is working with the police to track down gangsters. But there are also some police officers who are still caught in the legacy of the previous culture who contribute to the dissatisfaction of service delivery, through an involvement in corruption and abuse of sick leave. A reference was made about a particular officer who was on suspension because of alleged involvement in corrupt practices. Because of the complex regulations that pertain to the disciplinary procedure that are applicable to government institutions, these are some of the challenges facing the station managers.

Furthermore since labour-related laws, which often require a long and complicated process, it becomes difficult to dismiss an official who causes a bad image of the service. He viewed the problem coupled with inadequate powers as some concerns that the station managers have had to deal with. He was nevertheless optimistic when he referred to the President's speech at the opening of Parliament in 2002, where the President stated that those police who are not prepared to work must leave the service.

In retrospect the station had finalised formulating its Service Charter where all the station members committed themselves to the effective service delivery.

Another constraint that was highlighted in the interview was that there are very few detectives for the area they service, and was which caused delays and backlogs in the investigations of reported crimes. Regarding the Community Police Forum (CPF), it is composed of a number of government departments and community members, and was launched in June 2001 to try to open lines of communication between the community and the government. The director even remarked, "For the first time, we're trying to address the root causes of crime". But in a community where gangs have infiltrated almost every aspect of life and touch almost every family, tackling gangsters is a difficult project. According to the Station Commissioner, the Mitchell's Plain Community Police Forum is working properly and through this initiative there is an improvement in the relations between police and community. The forum meets once in every month to assess the progress on the detective work, crime prevention, and the backlog of cases.

5.2.2. Interview with the Station Commissioner in Khayelitsha Police Station

According to Director Shivuri, who is the Station Commissioner at Khayelitsha Police Station, prior to his arrival in 2001 there was lack of trust between the police and local community. The area policed by the police station is about 43 square kilometres, and houses about 1.2 million people who live in about 250 207 homes, 80% of which are informal dwellings. The physical environmental design is very bad since many of the area's shacks are built barely meters, if not centimetres from each other. Unemployment in the area is rife at 69% and contributes to the proliferation of sheebens (liquor establishments) that are known as a means of survival for many of the inhabitants. He said the station has about 103 functional officers who are tasked with serving 1.2 million people. According to the director many of the area's crimes, murder in particular, are liquor-related. The police had difficulty in policing more than 1 500 sheebens they were aware of in the township. He said the station's priority crimes include:

- Serious and violent crimes e.g. murder and robbery;
- Crime against women and children e.g. domestic violence, rape, child abuse, other assaults;
- Organised crime e.g. drug-related, fire arm-related, house breaking and theft; and
- Alcohol abuse

Khayelitsha has to deal with one of the highest murder rate of all police stations in Cape Town, yet the number of detectives assigned to it is currently only 47 officers. With regard to service delivery, the satisfactions of the community and response rates are the indicators that everyone is committed to achieve in the station. Originally, the response rate was 30 to 45 minutes. When shifts duty members

report on duty and everything is operating normally, the response rate occasionally stands at approximately between 1 to 30 minutes. But the station's goal is striving towards reducing it to around 15 minutes. According to the Station Commissioner, despite the bad physical environment and the fact that some streets are inaccessible in the area, they occasionally achieve 15 minutes response rate. Part of the problem is that police officers have to operate with only four patrol vehicles to patrol the four sectors into which police have divided Khayelitsha.

He reported that although there are still individuals in the police service who are still caught in the legacy of the past culture, the police officers are working hard to improve service delivery at the station. This was due to the cooperation between community and the police. The CPF was reported as working very closely with the police to bring the community to understand that combating crime was not solely the work of the police. Through other initiatives such as Bambanani Campaign ("Helping Each Other") with residents, there has been a dramatic decrease in the murder rate, although the station still has hectic weekends where 14 to 15 murders a weekend are usually reported.

According to the Commissioner the station saw the only way to reduce crime was to strengthen the relationship with local community and business in particular in order to augment its resources. It was mentioned that for instance, during the current financial year stakeholders played a major role in the drawing of the financial year budget, and this enabled the community to have first hand information about the limited resources and tight financial constraints that the station has to work under. However, the station commissioner mentioned some factors that contribute to the ineffective service delivery include, among others: members taking leave, backlog in terms of detective work, tracing units, granting of bail or the release of suspects because of lack of evidence.

5.3. Description of sample questionnaire

This section describes the responses to a questionnaire to measure organisational culture in terms of cultural dimensions such as those described in section 3.4., which are organised according to the following items, individual initiative, risk tolerance, direction, management support, reward orientation, communication patterns, task structure and management style. The questions are organised according to Likert-type questionnaire that consisted of a three-point scale. By so doing the researcher had to consider that a large number of scale points would cause respondents difficulty in making up their minds about which point to select. After the final construction it was then referred to experts for inspection and then distributed to the randomly to the respondents of which the target population was police officers.

The questions were divided into two sections, with Section A containing questions related to the bureaucratic structure of the SAPS organisation and sought to examine the perceptions of the police officers working in the type of organisational structure. Section B related to type of service delivery provided by the police and their capability whether they were effective in the delivery process. Both sections contain three columns; the first one indicates the name of the police station, followed by the total number of respondents in the particular police station indicated by letter N, which represent (100%) as the total number of respondents in that population. The latter columns represent the actual respondents on the perception of the question categorised as: Totally Agree, Neutral and Totally Disagree and these were indicated as a percentage to the total number respondents per police station.

5.3.1. Challenges

In Khayelitsha Police Station 40 questionnaires were distributed, 27 questionnaires were returned with 25 duly completed and 2 of the questionnaires incomplete. In this regards the researcher only worked on the basis of the 25 completed questionnaires. Similarly, in Mitchell's Plain 40 questionnaires were distributed but 21 questionnaires were returned fully complete. There might be a variety of reasons for the possible low response in completing the questionnaires, e.g. despite being assured that these forms belonged to the researcher for study purposes, however, it appears that some people were suspicious that their superiors could see their responses which could result in possible victimisation. Another possible reason relates to lack of time, as officials were normally busy. For instance on numerous occasions the researcher was contacted to collect the completed questionnaires but on arrival at the police stations he would be informed that some officials did not have enough time to complete them. The questions listed hereunder were aimed at measuring police officers' perceptions about working in a bureaucratic organisation.

Description of Section A

1. I think the performance system used by my supervisor is based on clear standard performance.

Police Station	N	Most Agree	Not sure	Most Disagree
Khayelitsha	25	37%	6%	57%
Mitchell's Plain	22	41%	11%	48%

About 39% of respondents believe performance system is based on clear standards, and 8.5% appear not to be sure, while 52.5% disagree.

2. In this organisation, authority to make decisions is only in the hands of managers.

Police Station	N	Most Agree	Not sure	Most Disagree
Khayelitsha	25	100%	0%	0%
Mitchell's Plain	22	100%	0%	0%

The response was 100%.

3. In my department support across work group and departmental boundaries is strongly encouraged.

Police Station	N	Most Agree	Not sure	Most Disagree
Khayelitsha	25	32%	8%	60%
Mitchell's Plain	22	18%	0%	82%

Only 25% support the statement. A high percentage of 71% disagree, whereas 4% remain neutral.

4. My manager encourages each individual to question and challenge him or her as well as other group members.

Police Station	N	Most Agree	Not sure	Most Disagree
Khayelitsha	25	16%	0	84%
Mitchell's Plain	22	32%	0	68%

About 24% agree and the overwhelming 76% disagree.

5. In our unit everyone is given autonomy, flexibility, and discretion to use creative ideas in order to achieve the goals of the organisation.

Police Station	N	Most Agree	Not sure	Most Disagree
Khayelitsha	25	24%	0%	76%
Mitchell's Plain	22	22%	0%	78%

23% of the respondents combined in both stations agree and 77% disagree

6. I value stability in my job.

Police Station	N	Most Agree	Not sure	Most Disagree
Khayelitsha	25	100%	0%	0%
Mitchell's Plain	22	100%	0%	0%

All respondents value stability as most important in their job.

7. The best job for me would be one in which the future is uncertain.

Police Station	N	Most Agree	Not sure	Most Disagree
Khayelitsha	25	12%	0%	88%
Mitchell's Plain	22	0%	0%	100%

Only 6% seem to enjoy working in an environment with uncertain future and the majority of 94% prefer working in a stable environment.

8. In this organisation employees have to follow many standards procedures and rules in doing their jobs.

Police Station	N	Most Agree	Not sure	Most Disagree
Khayelitsha	25	100%	0%	0%
Mitchell's Plain	22	100%	0%	0%

100% agree with the statement about following procedures and rules.

9. Working in a big organisation like SAPS gives me pride.

Police Station	N	Most Agree	Not sure	Most Disagree
Khayelitsha	25	100%	0%	0%
Mitchell's Plain	22	100%	0%	0%

A 100% response showed that SAPS is a nice place to work at.

10. Seniority should be as important as performance in determining pay increase and promotion.

Police Station	N	Most Agree	Not sure	Most Disagree
Khayelitsha	25	96%	0%	4%
Mitchell's Plain	22	86%	0%	12%

92% are in favour of seniority as a factor to be determined in pay increase and promotion. Only 8% disagree.

11. Communication at the station is free flowing between members, shift, units and department.

Police Station	N	Most Agree	Not sure	Most Disagree
Khayelitsha	25	40%	17%	43%
Mitchell's Plain	22	28%	20%	51%

About 34% regard communication as free, whereas 19% are unsure and 47% disagree.

12. One should respect people according to their ranks.

Police Station	N	Most Agree	Not sure	Most Disagree
Khayelitsha	25	92%	0%	8%
Mitchell's Plain	22	64%	0%	36%

About 78% of the respondents consider the respect of people according to their ranks as important and 22% disagree with this statement.

Description of Section B

The questions and the type of responses listed below were specifically asked to determine the respondents' perceptions in terms of how they provide public services.

1. Our station is user friendly and treats public with respect and sensitivity.

Police Station	N	Most Agree	Not sure	Most Disagree
Khayelitsha	25	64%	0%	36%
Mitchell's Plain	22	55%	18%	27%

About 60% of respondents agree with the question, 9% are unsure if it true, whereas 31% disagree.

2. When people come to the station they are treated with prompt service and greater sensitivity.

Police Station	N	Most Agree	Not sure	Most Disagree
Khayelitsha	25	51%	16%	33%
Mitchell's Plain	22	46%	9%	45%

48.5% of the respondents believe that service delivery is prompt, 12.5% remain unsure, while 39% disagree that the delivery of service are prompt.

3. The victims of serious crimes receive privacy, enough support and are treated professionally.

Police Station	N	Most Agree	Not sure	Most Disagree
Khayelitsha	25	52%	28%	20%
Mitchell's Plain	22	38%	13%	49%

45% of the respondents believe the statement is true, 20.5% are unsure and 34.5% disagree.

4. When a complainant comes to open a case, the officer in charge immediately writes down the statement properly and the complainant is given a case number.

Police Station	N	Most Agree	Not sure	Most Disagree
Khayelitsha	25	67%	0%	33%
Mitchell's Plain	22	59%	10%	31%

A proportion of 63% agree with the statement, 5% and 32% disagree.

5. The complainant is immediately informed of what will happen with the case.

Police Station	N	Most Agree	Not Sure	Most Disagree
Khayelitsha	25	32%	8%	60%
Mitchell's Plain	22	41%	14%	45%

36.5% of the respondents believe that complainants are informed about what will happen to the case, while 11% are not sure and 52.5% disagree.

6. Complainants are informed immediately who to contact about their cases

Police Station	N	Most Agree	Not Sure	Most Disagree
Khayelitsha	25	27%	24%	49%
Mitchell's Plain	22	40%	32%	28%

About 33.5% respondents believe that complainants are informed as to whom to contact about cases, 28% remain unsure while 38.5% disagree with the statement.

7. Complainants are provided with prompt feedback and are continuously updated about the progress made during investigation process.

Police Station	N	Most Agree	Not Sure	Most Disagree
Khayelitsha	25	47%	11%	42%
Mitchell's Plain	22	51%	3%	46%

An average of 49% respondents believes that information feedback about investigation is provided to the complainant while 7% are not sure, but 44% disagree.

8. The response rate to crime scenes or reported incidents is between 0-15 minutes.

Police Station	N	Most Agree	Not sure	Most Disagree
Khayelitsha	25	48%	20%	32%
Mitchell's Plain	22	36%	14%	50%

42% of the respondents agree with the question, 17% are unsure while 41% disagree

9. Police officers give a prompt service when public comes to the police station

Police Station	N	Most Agree	Not sure	Most Disagree
Khayelitsha	25	64%	0%	36%
Mitchell's Plain	22	54%	0%	46%

About 59% respondents believe that police provide prompt service to the public are prompt and 41% disagree.

10. Community members work close with the police in crime prevention?

Police Station	N	Most Agree	Not sure	Most Disagree
Khayelitsha	25	34%	12%	54%
Mitchell's Plain	22	29%	8%	63%

31.1% agree that community members work close with the police, while 10% are not sure. 58.5% do not believe that community members work closely with police.

5.4. Review and analysis of sample results

In the previous chapters a review of related literature on organisational culture and service delivery provided the secondary research data input for this study. The primary research data will be analysed in this section. The assessment of the survey results were divided into two sections as indicated in the survey questionnaire so as to determine the significance of the police cultural impact on service delivery. Subsequently, conclusions will be drawn and recommendations made. It must be noted that the questions measuring different characteristics of culture were randomly selected and distributed to the respondents in order to solicit their perceptions.

The first component of the survey results relates to section A where the respondents provided their views. The following deductions can be made from the results:

Questions 1 relates to extent to which emphasis is placed on individual accountability for clearly defined results and high level of performance. Performance and reward system have a powerful impact on behaviour in organisational members because what is rewarded is what is valued. It therefore implies that performance system should be seen as a measure for end-of-process performance objectives (which are driven by the value proposition), as well as customer satisfaction, employee satisfaction, and financial contribution. This evaluation resulted in the majority respondents with 52.5% disagree and 8.5% were unsure, clearly means the performance system used is not clearly defined and understandable by members.

Question 2 relate to the extent to which employees perceive themselves as participating in the decision-making process of the organisation. 100% response believes they don't participate and decision-making lies with the management. Question 3 relates to the extent to which various units are actively encouraged to cooperate in a coordinated way in order to achieve the overall organisational objectives. Only 25% believe so and 71% believes this is not true. Question 4 relates to the degree in which the management style allows employees to air their views and criticism openly. Only 24% think the management are open to criticism, while 76% disagree. Question 5 demonstrates the degree of autonomy, flexibility, trust and independence that employees have in their jobs. Only 23% agree and 77% believe they do not have freedom and flexibility to use their creative ideas in order to achieve the organisational objectives. In Question 6 all members preferred to work in an organisation with stable environment.

Question 7 relates to the extent to which employees are encouraged to be innovative, take risks and work in a turbulent environment. A total of 77% are not in favour of working in an environment with an uncertain future. Question 8 relates to the degree to which rules and regulations and direct supervision are applied to manage employee behaviour. A high response of 100% agrees with the statement. In Question 9 the respondents were in favour of working in a big organisation. Question 10 relates to the degree to which reward allocations are based on employee performance in contrast to seniority, favouritism or any non-performance criterion. A total of 92% believe that seniority is as important as performance for reward allocation and only 8% are not in favour. With regard to Question 11 about 34% believe communication flows freely, while 47% do not agree and 19% are unsure. In Question 12 the majority of 78% believe respect to be accorded in line with rank whereas the remaining 24% disagree.

Section B

Admittedly this question would be more relevant if the survey was conducted with the public, however, analysis of the results show that to a certain extent police officers are aware of the need to provide service delivery. In Question 1, about 60% of the respondents believe that the stations are user friendly

and treating the public with respect. They also believe that the services at police stations are prompt this is indicated by a total of 48.5% in Question 2. But at the same time a substantial number of 39% of the respondents in the same question seem to be in contrast with the statement.

Again in Question 3 a high percentage of 45% of the respondents believe that the victims of serious crime are receiving support and treated with professionalism. However, an interesting percentage of 34.5% disagree with another figure of 20.5% remain unsure. This contrast can be true as the researcher noticed that the some police officers would just enter into the Victims of Crime Support Centre Unit while the session was still conducted. In Question 4 about 63% of the respondents agree that when a case is opened at the police station the statement is written down and case number issued immediately to the complainant. But Question 5 shows that 52.5% do not believe that the complainants are informed of what will happen with their cases, and a further 11% remain unsure. Also with the question of feedback about 44% as indicated in Question 7 do not believe that complainants are regularly updated about their cases. Also in Question 8, 41% of the respondents believe that the response rate to the crime scenes is within 0-15 minutes, with 17% also unsure. In Question 10 a high of 58% do not believe that there community-police partnership is effectively to prevent crime.

Although in most of the questions, the response of those who disagree with the questions is higher, which can be interpreted as that to some degree there is still a prevailing culture that lacks responsiveness to service delivery in the police stations. This clearly shows that the prevailing culture in the service is in efficient in accordance with service delivery (Batho Pele principles) of which the Charter and Code of Conduct are visibly displayed at police stations.

5.5. Summary and the findings

The focus and locus of this study was to determine the impact of police culture on service delivery. The findings were made focusing on the main sources used in this study: literature, observation, and data obtained from individual respondents.

5.5.1. Review of literature

The study project described service delivery and principles that underpin it. The need to continuously change the culture of service delivery in public sector institutions to deliver effectively is well documented in Chapter 2. Service delivery principles in the context of Batho Pele Framework and other public management applications which incorporate private sector strategies have been discussed in terms of practical examples as well as alternative to help improve the performance of public institutions in a manner that is innovative.

More importantly, in order to measure the department's success in service delivery one needs to identify not just input/processes/output indicators but also outcome indicators. In the study, the overview of organisational culture was broadly discussed and there seems to be a consensus that it is viewed as the pattern of basic beliefs, attitudes, values, and assumptions that an organisation has invented, discovered and developed over time in order to cope effectively with changes in its external environment and in an effort to harmonise its internal functioning. Theoretical evidence suggest that the traditional big organisations such as government departments are usually rigid, inflexible and reactive. Unlike the traditional bureaucratic organisations, small and entrepreneurial organisations that have a flat structure are flexible and responsive to change. In terms of service provision, they are favoured for being creative and use of inovative methods without being hampered by rigid administration rules and bureaucratic systems. Examples were shown about the inept bureaucratic rules that exists within the SAPS such as the story of a detective who realised the urgency of a particular case regarding a suspect who had committed a criminal offence and ran to another province. It was reported that the detective used his descretion and bypassed the bureaucratic procedures by not seeking a permit to apprehend the suspect. Although he showed an initiative and apreheended the suspect but he still faced disciplinary measures being taken against him for not obeying the department regulations.

The national organisational structure of the SAPS as shown in *Appendix C* resembles a typical bureaucratic organisation with too many layers, which prevent a quick flow of information and decision-making. It has been noted that such structure usually consists of various fragmented functional units with little coordination. From the literature perspective, theory shows that generally police culture it is ineffective as police agencies are said to be rigid and slow. Because of factors such as rigid structure, secrecy, slow response, the SAPS in particular is still grappling to function within the culture of efficient public service delivery and customer oriented approach as specified in the government White Paper on Servive Delivery (1997) Batho Pele Framework.

5.5.2. Observation

The researcher also used the general observations in order to establish more information that would be difficult when using formal methods such as interview and questionnaires. For instance informal discussion with Human Resource Officers was held in a relaxed environment. The discussions showed that there is a tendency to ignore Human Resource Officers when planning the crime prevention strategies. It was observed that HR departments in police stations are regarded as just another

extension of administration department which mainly concerns itself with record keeping and disciplinary inquiries.

While the government is strongly focused on skills training, the researcher found the role of HR departments at the police stations concerned to be insignificant in terms of overall planning and assisting line departments concerning the identification of capacity skills and competency needs. The researcher also observed that HR head officials were often left out in strategic meetings for station managers. This concern gave the impression that the actual function of HR seems not to be properly understood.

The launch of series of community projects such as Bambanani against Crime, Campaign against Women and Children Abuse were supposed to empower communities and strengthen partnership with the police; however, they seem to lack coherence and involvement of the very community particularly the vulnerable sections of the community such as women and youth. In addition, since many of these projects that are launched at the police stations do not involve the direct beneficiaries from the conceptual stages they tend to lack proper support from the community and as a result some become unsustainable. Secondly, the view of the researcher is that for these projects to be sustainable and receive community support, they should be seen as forming an integral part of the broader community development programmes or projects with strategies clearly defined in terms of how will they create jobs and alleviate poverty which are the primary causes of crime in poor communities.

Some officers alluded to the fact that the implementation of the new policing function brought difficulties especially to the long serving members. Inadequate training was cited as one of the shortcomings which contribute to inefficiency and ineffectiveness in the new method of policing. It was claimed that even the new community policing philosophy was imposed without thorough consultation to seek input and to allay fears especially to the long serving members. The only emphasis according to the police officers was the police were expected to be versatile and adaptive to the new policing method. The continuing lack of a coherent and integrated training, deployment, development and succession strategy geared towards enhancing local service delivery suggest that there are no systemic incentives for rewarding innovative and effective practice at local level.

Incidentally all the unit managers who head various units in both stations none of them was headed by a female manager, which gives the general impression about the department that it is still male-dominated. Another concern was that many police officers were mainly pre-occupied with pure-

administrative functions such as certifying of documents, which can be handled by clerical staff. While the involvement of policing in community projects was cited as important in crime prevention, it was not clear if CPFs were involved in all development projects particularly in Khayelitsha where many of those projects were joint initiatives between provincial and national governments. It was observed that a general tendency may occur in the police stations where the concept of community is narrowly defined and exclude the broader stakeholders.

Given this interest by both the provincial operations and national level counter parts it is not clear if any success to crime reduction can be attributed to local level. Crime trends and statistics have been widely published by media on regular basis and in some cases by official reports in South Africa; however, it is noted that duplication in terms of operational activities and lack of proper planning and coordination continue to exist and these are among the causes of poor performance. This is particularly true that for example whenever there is a new emerging crime issue, it is common that a new unit will be formed as a response unit to that specific crime issue. The views shared by the station managers were that lack of financial, capital and human resources and inadequate decision-making powers limit their operational effectiveness in crime prevention. While these views are legitimate, the same can be said that this shows the ineffective police training methods including police managers' training as inherited from the previous system. As for station commanders as formerly known the emphasis was to issue orders and control. For junior officers they were expected to follow the orders and instructions, any deviation was regarded as insubordination would be subject to discipline.

Contemporary policing implies that the station managers must lead with vision, plan strategically, draw proper business plan in order to raise additional funds and resources for the station, entrepreneurial skills, financial management and budgeting, project management marketing and people management etc. These techniques will help to build the much needed capacity of the station managers to enable them to prioritise and optimally utilise the limited resources. Secondly, techniques such as project management and people management can equip unit leaders to manage multiple tasks and monitor according to the set plan with specific activities and timeframes to achieve the station's goals.

It has been observed that occasional crime operations, usually sanctioned by top management on an adhoc basis in identified hot spot areas, have proved that if the police can plan effectively with crime intelligence and detectives structures adequately resourced and deployed effectively, the impact of crime can decrease significantly. In some cases the detectives were not acquainted with the local language which can cause communication problems and hamper investigation process. Although there

is a general tendency at police stations to think that in patrolling function one may only rely on motor vehicles to be effective, foot patrolling where police officers are properly deployed is still effective to discourage the would-be offenders.

5.5.3. Research investigation

The research results show that public institutions are still characterised by inefficiency, slowness and bureaucratic bungles, which make them lag behind when compared with private sector. Analysis of the survey results to some extent correlates with the literature review and suggest that the degree of bureaucracy and paramilitary culture in the police exists and inhibits flexibility and innovation. In the first instance this is demonstrated by the responses from the station managers who attribute some of the stations' poor performance to under-resourcing and lack of powers. Performance systems used at police stations do not clearly define the measurement of performance standards against the operational outcome results. It therefore makes sense that employees believe performance and reward systems should be based on seniority rather than performance standards.

Clearly, given the tendency of systems focusing on a rule based approach results in a situation where employees will follow their tasks in a routine manner for fear of reprimand. According to questionnaire results related to the structure of the organisation and systems involved the respondents appear to demonstrate a relationship between culture and the size of the organisation. Most of the respondents were in favour of working in a big organisation such as the police department. Secondly, such big organisations rely on rules and regulations for control, and hence the respondents also felt that the decision making normally lie in the hands of managers. In addition, big organisations like the police departments appear not to allow autonomy, flexibility and discourage creativity. These findings correlate with literature. In the absence of sufficient evidence to prove whether the results obtained from the primary research show a correlation between police culture and service delivery, the results have some limitations and therefore cannot be credibly relied upon for the following reasons namely:

- Since the study was a pilot and mainly conducted into only two police stations, the response cannot be conclusively be generalised as representing the whole population of police officers.
- Service delivery relates to the way in which the public experiences the services and goods they receive from the government. It would be more appropriate if Section B of the questionnaire was answered by the public in order to ascertain the way they perceptions police culture and service delivery whether it is satisfactory or poor.

In light of this, the survey was only confined to opinions of the selected police officers for the purpose of the pilot study, it should be mentioned that in order to prove the validity and accuracy whether there is a direct correlation between the two variables, the study would need to be further explored in terms of broadening the scope to include more police stations around the country and another set of questionnaire to the public who are the ultimate beneficiaries of police service. It can be

5.6. Conclusion

In order for this study to be objective it was essential to balance between a theoretical framework and an empirical investigation. As is shown above, measuring police culture is a difficult task which depends on the validity of the instruments used by the researcher. In this regard empirical evidence was derived by using mainly interviews, questionnaires and observation in order to determine police officers' attitudes towards their work environment by focusing on among the variables namely, organisational structure, rules, systems management and their effects on service delivery.

As indicated in the previous section that because the population that was targeted for the purpose of this study was a pilot study and it cannot be conclusively proven that the views raised by the targeted group represent the entire police agency. However, literature findings prove that organisational culture plays a significant effect on employee behaviour and organisational effectiveness. Literature review broadly described the police agencies and analysed the characteristics of police culture. These are underlying values which were found to be commonly visible in various police agencies and influence employee behavioural attitude and difficult to change.

Organisational culture is viewed as the most important factor that influences employee behaviour and attitudes towards the environment. Such behavioural aspect was reflected in the high percentage of the respondents which suggests that employees prefer working according to rules and work well in a bureaucratic organisation like the police service. Clearly, in the literature study, bureaucratic organisations were associated with big organisations like police departments, and these were regarded as working well in a stable environment.

Evidence from the literature proves the prevailing culture from police organisations contributes towards a negative perception that police service is inefficient. These findings were further reinforced by both station managers and some police officers who alluded to the fact that the present image of the police organisation is tainted by the legacy of the past culture. From this study it is clear that policing crime is still the primary role of the police. The new community policing style requires flexibility and innovation in

order to solve broad community problems and achieve effectiveness in policing. However, the prevailing culture does not support the sentiments of innovative culture which is among the tools that are envisaged for achieving efficient service delivery. It must be mentioned that such a culture impact negatively on the performance of the organisation as it is in conflict with the strategic objectives of the organisation. In conclusion of this section, the findings of the research investigation have been discussed in order to provide the recommendations and reach the final conclusions, subsequently; the next chapter will recap the discussion from the introduction and examine the progress made in terms of alternative strategies to improve organisational culture.

CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. Introduction

In this study the concepts service delivery and organisational culture have been explored in terms of organisational effectiveness. Public managers are faced with increasing challenges to ensure that public institutions are functioning efficiently and provide service delivery in a manner that is spelt out in White Paper on Service Delivery (1997) Batho Pele Framework in order to achieve both efficient service delivery outcomes and sustainable governance. For this reason service delivery framework was examined and suggestions were made which entailed to incorporate some of the new public management applications as used in private sector for best practices in order to foster a culture of innovation and achieve efficiency.

Organisational culture was described as an element that can be a positive factor to high performance. Similarly, it was also argued that it can be a barrier to change and organisational effectiveness. Common to all the different definitions of culture is an acceptance that culture is a shared values, beliefs, attitudes which determine how the employees respond to environment. It is also that organisational culture is an embedded value in the organisation that becomes acceptable and serves as a binding effect that enable employees to have a common view of the organisation. The discussion further argues that culture determines or strongly influences the strategy, direction and success of organisations.

Against this background, in discussing both the concepts of service delivery and organisational culture, the study found that entrepreneurial organisations are innovators and risk taking which are biased towards customer satisfaction and believe in flat and flexible structures. Some models of organisational change in order to align to a newly envisaged culture have been suggested. With regard to the police organisation, the transformation initiatives undertaken in the SAPS were aimed to effect a new civilian culture which put emphasis on the new style of community policing. However, literature evidence proves that the prevailing police culture which is still dominated by the legacy of the previous paramilitary culture such as bureaucratic rules, autocracy, rigid systems is difficult to change and contributes to inefficient policing.

6.2. Recommendations

By conducting this research study, to focus mainly on both the concepts "organisational culture and service delivery" and operationalise it in the SAPS, it makes as useful groundwork for further work in search of effective strategies to enhance a culture of efficient police services. Therefore it is suggested

that this study need to be followed up with a comprehensive research, which includes the public, community, and other relevant stakeholders who work closely with the police. It is clear from this study that organisational culture and service delivery are interrelated. The SAPS has up to now undertaken a lot of changes and initiatives in an effort to ensure that the police deliver service in the context of the White Paper on Service Delivery (1997) Batho Pele Framework and human rights culture. Accordingly, the new community policing framework that was introduced few years together with other policy programmes implies that policing function has become more broad to provide service to the community.

In addition, changing culture to be more service oriented is central if the agency aims to be effective. It entails that some certain measures need to be adopted which include among others changing the minds of both the police officers themselves as practitioners into becoming professional service providers, and unit commanders transforming them from being paramilitary bureaucrats into becoming entrepreneurial managers who lead by experimenting rather than rule based instructions. For this to be effective the SAPS in service delivery enhancement the following recommendations should be considered:

- i. *Organisational structure design:* The present organisational form as shown in *Annexure C* is a reflection of a hierarchical structure with fragmented units. The current form of organisational design structure with too many powers vested at high levels inhibits flexibility and creates ambiguity as it lacks proper flow of communication. More powers need to be devolved to the station level where war against crime occurs. Devolving powers to the station managers is possible without losing any control at top level. Attention should be paid at restructuring the station level by integrating units that perform related functions into a single unit in order to achieve better coordination, efficiency and speed response.
- ii. *Partnership:* The environment in which policing takes place requires that the police should undertake joint police training and information sharing in a bid to entrench a culture of effective policing and openness by training police officers, non-governmental organisations and other initiatives. Exchange of information and co-operation can lead to synergy which can leverage the functioning of the police to win over crime. Neighbourhood police stations can share the resources and complement each other by jointly cooperate where resources are inadequate. The same applies to detectives and intelligence works, these important resources can also be shared between nearby police stations where assistance is needed.
- iii. *Leadership:* The task of leadership as opposed to leaders requires personal capabilities of setting direction and steer the organisation along the right path. Station managers in particular are faced the dual challenge of discovering these high level capabilities in themselves and of

gaining commitment and capabilities from others. Central to this task is positive influential role they play in terms of inspiring the station members. Managers at station level should possess leadership and vision that in order constantly foresee opportunities and able to articulate goals of the organisation clearly and ensure that they are implementable.

- iv. *Training and development:* Training division in the SAPS need to address the following issues: the critical challenge is to change the attitude of the police members to be positive by reinforcing learning rather than focusing on tasks. Secondly, the training curriculum must instil professionalism as opposed to specialists. At the same time it should not end with completion of task programs but true training must be linked to personal development. The knowledge and skills gained must be broad and applicable even outside the duty. Given the changing environment they operate in, proficiency in specific task alone is not enough, training must equip people with multitask knowledge and skills in order to anticipate and function effectively.
- v. *Capacity building:* A culture of entrepreneurship needs to be engendered in the SAPS if the police are to meet the demands and needs of the community in a more successful manner. Providing ongoing capacity building support to station managers and as well unit managers this is important to ensure that they are in line with the strategic direction of the organisation. The advantage of capacity building programs is that they are aimed at outcome-base development. While these can facilitate the changing of attitude, they also help developing leadership that is so scarce in the SAPS. Alternatively this can be outsourced to outside institutions such as universities and other Non governmental organisations (NGOs). In order to reinforce sustainable learning the program must be National Qualifications Framework (NQF) aligned, meet its levels, credits, outcomes and assessment criteria so that all credits could count towards national South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) registered qualifications. Consequently, the primary goal of capacity building must be to empower police managers with leadership skills and enhance competency.
- vi. *Deployment:* Different studies conducted show that the number of police is approximately 128, 000 of which about 20000 are civilians. A handful of 6000 works on SAPS head office related functions. Approximately, 21000 are detectives. This is translated into a figure of 73000 police officers whose job is to prevent crime. A large number of police officers are either under skilled or poorly trained while at the same time a substantial number of officers work in an administrative capacity. With some of the operations recently launched in the province showed that if police members can be deployed effectively crime can be reduced. Effective deployment

of police members is more than just making routine checks and disappearing. It needs proper planning, a thorough analysis of area profile, knowing the occurrence of regular crimes committed in the area and at what periods. Training of local detectives who understand the local language and culture is critical for crime prevention and speeding up the investigation process which will lead up to namely, reducing awaiting trial backlog, timely and successful prosecution etc. Visible policing is another important mechanisms such as foot, bicycle and vehicle patrolling to discourage the would be offenders. This may be augmented by collaborating with other law enforcement agencies of which such venture should be seen as a value added and creating synergy in policing crime rather than fighting over bureaucratic operational boundaries. Effectively, this can enable police members to focus on more priority areas. In areas where there are no police stations, satellite police stations can be opened so that police services are accessible when needed.

- vii. *Performance management:* An integrated performance system should be designed to ensure that individual performance is not based only in proficiency skills and abilities but should be linked to outcome development. This can be achieved where coaching and training takes place and learning is rewarded. In addition employees must be seen as valuable asset to the success of the organisation. Likewise an integrated human resource system should play a key role to ensure that the organisation retain a highly competent team who continuously upgrading themselves.
- viii. *A new culture:* The SAPS need to be mission driven and find the most innovative ways for delivering public goods to the community. In order to entrench a new culture the real meaning of the principles of the White Paper on Service Delivery (Batho Pele Framework) need to be properly explained to police officers in terms of how it relates to their expected behaviour when performing their work. As part of the SAPS expected performance outcome these principles should be included when measuring their performance indicators in order to ensure that the individual officer's behavioural attitude is aligned. It needs to constantly evaluate and review the overall effectiveness of the department, including leadership style and management practices such as fostering a culture of performance and reward, increasing employee participation and setting goals for individuals and teams to ensure inclusiveness and collective commitment to goal achievement.

The high performance organisation should also strive to inculcate a high-involvement culture where mediocrity is not tolerated and openness to challenge, change and continuous learning. Equally

decentralisation of decision making and authority to lower levels particularly, at station level where police officers face daily tasks of fighting crime and solving community problems should not be viewed as losing power. Instead it should be seen as part of an empowering process for the police at station level to make informed decisions and become responsive in order to achieve greater efficiency. In this regard this can help to restructure the work to be performed in a project related manner where the tasks performed are interdependent and time and speed are crucial to the success of the project. However, its sustainability depends whether people are encouraged through frequent communication across departmental lines and among people with different viewpoints, structures that provide access to innovative role models and more risk tolerance. For instance detective work requires that detectives work very closely with the prosecuting service to understand what technicalities and information needed in the evidence, how it should be compiled and presented in court.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION

The main objective of this study was to explore the impact of organisational culture from the point of view of the police culture on service delivery. This research study was undertaken by examining the concept of service delivery and the overview of organisational culture with its sources, different dimensions and types of culture in order to operationalise them in the context of the SAPS. In the context of this study it is clear that organisational culture refers to a system of shared meaning held by members that distinguish the organisation from other organisations. Secondly, it is a pattern of beliefs, values and learned ways of coping with experience that have developed during the course of an organisation's history, and which tend to be manifested in its material arrangements and in behaviours of its members. This system of shared meaning is, on closer examination, seem to be a set of key characteristics that the organisation values. Sources of organisational culture particularly, the founders' philosophy and top management actions have a major impact on the organisation's culture.

It also emerged that a strong culture can be an important element of the organisation as it creates consistency and predictability. Hence, it is argued that organisational culture has a positive impact on an organisation when it points behaviour in the right direction. Alternatively, a strong culture can reinforce a singular view of the organisation and its environment and make it difficult to change for the desired goals, particularly when it points behaviour in the wrong direction. One of the rationales for this study was to establish whether culture can be managed effectively. It should be noted that if culture is regarded as an embedded social interaction, that is, as something that is socially produced over time, then it cannot be mechanically manifested. In Chapter 3 various models have been suggested that can be useful in the process of changing organisational culture. With regard to efficient service delivery, it is a term that is more easily used by politicians than fully explained. Chapter 2 also highlighted the difference between goods and services, terms which are commonly used interchangeably. The regulatory framework and service delivery principles which underpin the efficiency of service delivery with some private sector practices being incorporated can be useful in public institutions were suggested.

A review of the literature available about the SAPS, demonstrates that the prevailing culture which is characterised by paramilitary, bureaucratic structure and rigid systems is inefficient and not consistent with the government-envisaged culture of efficient service delivery. Literature further demonstrates the prevalence of male dominance where a few females were appointed in senior positions. As pointed out in Chapter 3, the different sources of culture and typologies were discussed in order give a clear practical perspective on how culture can be properly managed and aligned along the organisation's

mission and goals. From the discussion it should be pointed out that in order for the SAPS to be effective in service delivery, it should create an environment where police stations can develop entrepreneurial flair. This should be accompanied by encouraging innovation and to reward performance which is based on competency and skills. An entrepreneurial culture entails a flat structure with team coordination and information flows to allow quick decision-making, which encourages individual sound judgement. As has been discussed, contemporary policing function needs the usage of the latest digital technology, a challenge that needs to be overcome by the SAPS if it has to be effective in policing crime.

7.1. Implications of this study for further research

The study of organisational behaviour remains a dynamic and complex field of study. It is therefore interesting to suggest a list of further research that will enrich the knowledge of the subject. Outlined hereunder are a few research problems for further study that emerged during the execution of this research study, but which were too large in scope to incorporate within the various constraints imposed.

This study has focused on the impact of organisational culture on service delivery in respect of the SAPS. In the discussion of organisational culture it emerged that the cultural characteristics of high performing organisations have a direct relationship between performance and organisational culture. It would be encouraging in future studies to look specifically at the evaluation of the effectiveness of diagnostics tools for intervention strategies in respect of high performing culture in the SAPS.

7.2. Important points to consider for this study

The following points are considered to be important to note particularly for organisational leaders:

- The need for sustainable service delivery more than policy papers will depend on competent and skilled public officials who are innovative and value citizens;
- Entrepreneurial culture is the basis for innovation;
- Public managers have an increasing role to ensure that their departments are high performers and provide excellent service by ensuring that their personnel staff are fully equipped and are continuously learning;
- Departments must move away from focusing on processes, inward looking and avoid complacency, but must collaborate and share information if they are to be competitive and deliver outcome based services;
- Poor skills, lack of training and expertise are the serious constraints on efficiency and effectiveness in public institutions;

- To much bureaucracy becomes inefficient and costly, it imposes an unjustifiable administrative burden on both citizens and police officers, thus impact significantly in capacity building for the implementation of policy programmes;
- Gaps between the strategic policy framework and operational policies affect service delivery;
- Decentralisation of decision-making and empowering managers at lower level can enhance productivity;
- Managers must lead, mentor, and coach and training should be multi-skilled instead of specialised;
- They must also learn to delegate and should have trust and confidence in subordinates; and
- Departmental units are functionally interdependent and need to work cooperatively, collaborate and share information in order to achieve organisational goals rather than operating in isolation of each other.

7.3. Conclusion.

The SAPS' culture will continue to be a central issue and concern in the agency's efforts to provide community services. A major challenge will continue to confront the modern policing agencies as they now operate in a global environment to be truly transformed in order to become highly effective and competitive in crime prevention. It is important to highlight an earlier point that an entrepreneurial culture remains a challenge and is central if the SAPS is to become innovative and achieve organisational effectiveness.

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PERSONAL COMMUNICATION

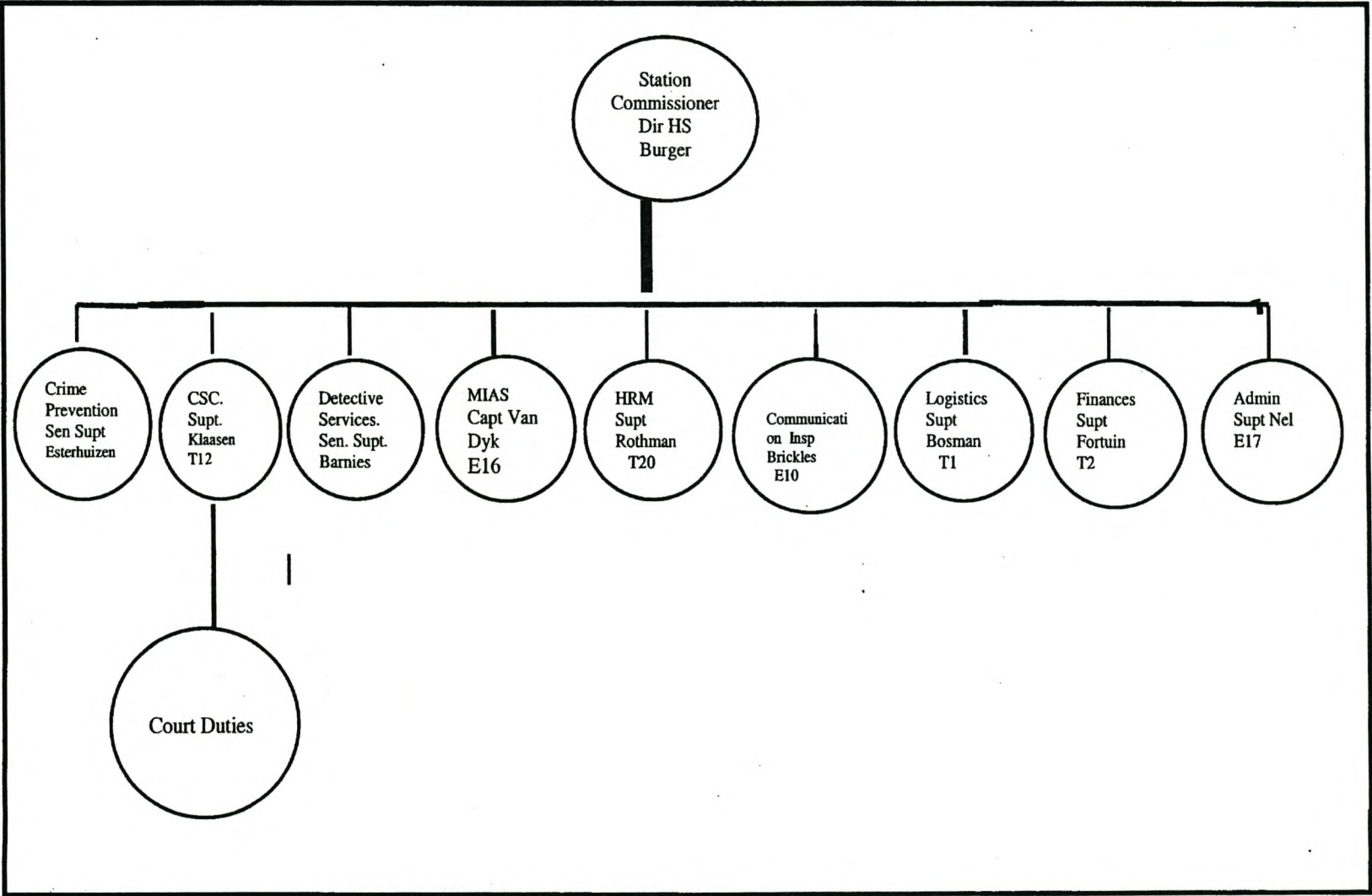
Director Burger, Station Commissioner (Mitchell's Plain Police Station), September 2002

Director Shivuri, Station Commissioner (Khayelitsha Police Station) October 2002

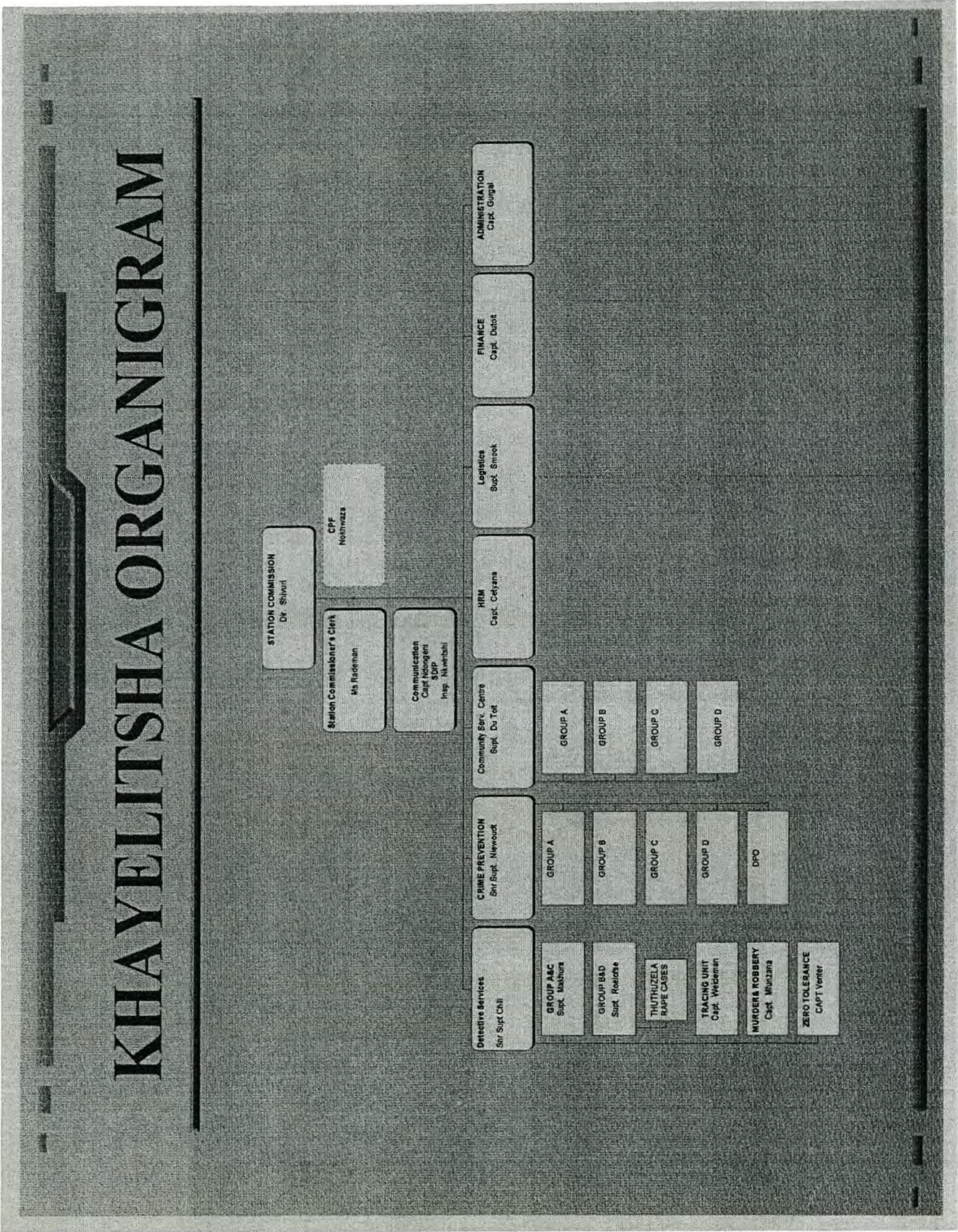
LIST OF ANNEXURES

- A. Mitchell's Plain Police Station Organogram
- B. Khayelitsha Police Station Organogram
- C. National Structure of the South African Police Service
- D. Sample questionnaire.

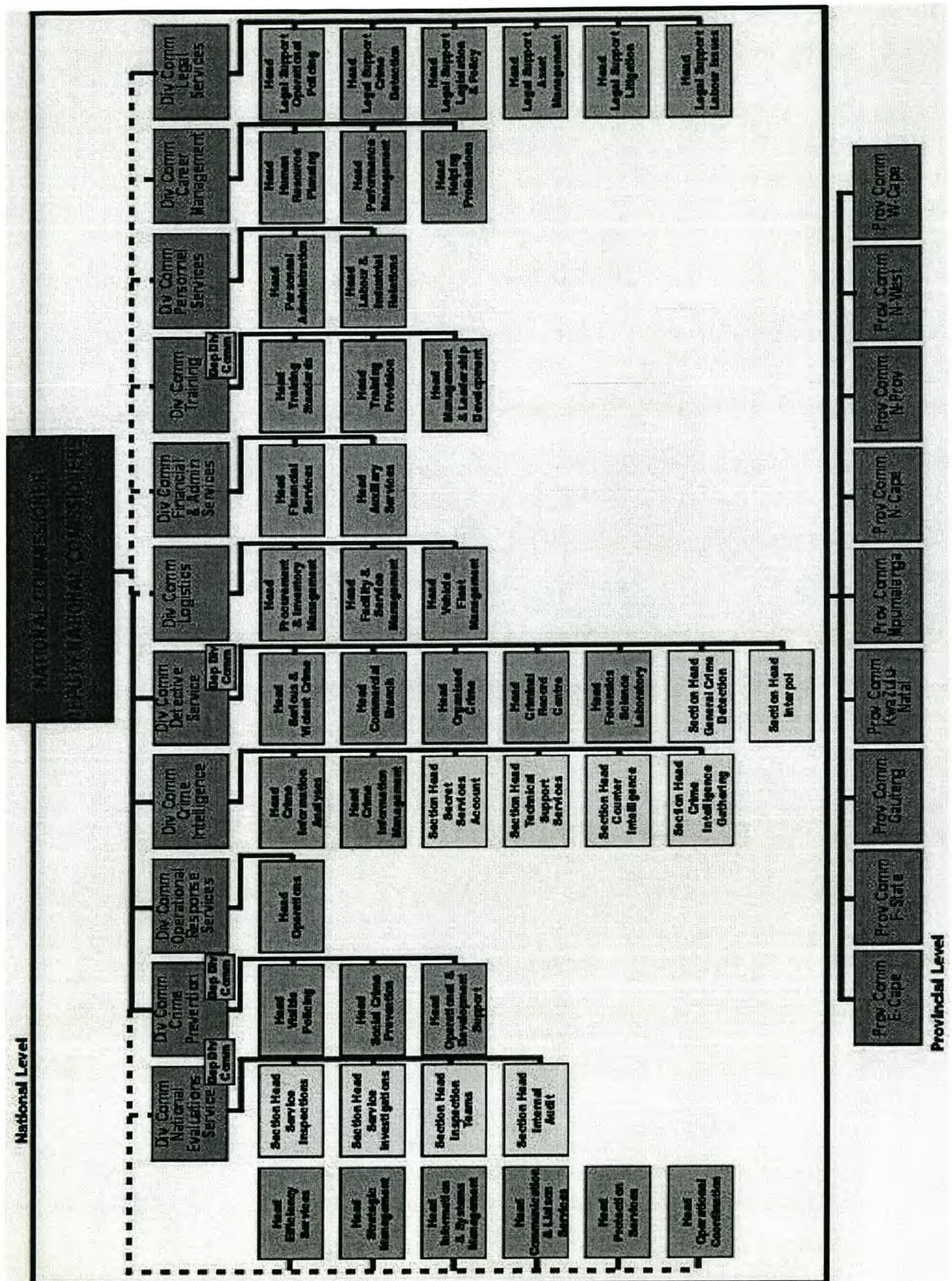
MITCHELL'S PLAIN ORGANOGRAM



ANNEXURE B: KHAYELITSHA ORGANOGRAM



ANNEXURE C: NATIONAL STRUCTURE OF THE SAPS



ANNEXURE D: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Name of Police Station:

The objective of this survey is to determine how members of the organisation in which you work, feel about various organisational processes.

The survey is anonymous. Please do not write your name on the questionnaire. The contents of this form are absolutely confidential. Information identifying the respondent will be under no circumstances be disclosed. The free and frank expression of your own opinion will be most helpful.

There is no right or wrong answers to any of the items in this questionnaire. It is your opinion on each of the statements that matters.

After you have read each statement, please decide the degree to which the statement accurately describes your own situation and your own feelings, by selecting the most appropriate abbreviation in the dotted line next to each question in order to help the researcher come to rational conclusions and recommendations:

MA= Mostly agree"

N= Not Sure

MD= Mostly disagree.

Section A – Questionnaire on Culture

1. I think the performance system used by my supervisor is based on clear standards of performance.....
2. In this organisation, authority to make decisions is only in the hands of managers.....
3. In my department support across work group and departmental boundaries is strongly encouraged.....
4. My manager encourages each individual to question and challenge him or her as well as other group members.....
5. In our unit everyone is given autonomy, flexibility, and discretion to use creative ideas in order to achieve the goals of the organisation.....
6. I value stability in my job.....
7. The best job for me would be one in which the future is uncertain.....

8. In this organisation employees have to follow many standards procedures and rules in doing their jobs.....
9. Working in a big organisation like SAPS gives me pride.....
10. Seniority should be as important as performance in determining pay increase and promotion.....
11. Communication at the station is free flowing between members, shift, units and department.....
12. One should respect people according to their ranks.....

Section B

Please answer all questions by indicating MA for Most Agree, N for Not Sure and MD for Most Disagree in the dotted lines next to each question.

Questionnaire on Service delivery

1. Our station is user friendly and treats public with respect and sensitivity.....
2. When people come to the station they are informed about their rights in terms of service delivery.....
3. The victims of serious crimes receive privacy, enough support and are treated professionally.....
4. When a complainant comes to open a case, the officer in charge immediately writes down the statement properly and the complainant is furnished with the case number.....
5. The complainant is immediately informed about what will happen with the case.....
6. Complainants are immediately informed immediately as to whom they should contact after opening cases.....
7. Complainants are provided with prompt feedback and are continuously updated about the progress made during investigation process.....
8. The response rate to crime scenes or reported incidents is between 0-15 minutes.....
9. Police officers are friendly when serving the public.....
10. Police members work close with community to prevent crime.....